

# For Reference

---

NOT TO BE TAKEN FROM THIS ROOM



# For Reference

NOT TO BE TAKEN FROM THIS ROOM

Ex LIBRIS  
UNIVERSITATIS  
ALBERTAENSIS







Digitized by the Internet Archive  
in 2019 with funding from  
University of Alberta Libraries

<https://archive.org/details/Ziolkowski1965>









THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

A STUDY OF PRACTICES EMPLOYED BY  
HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN THE  
SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

by

ERWIN HAROLD ZIOLKOWSKI

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES  
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE  
OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

SEPTEMBER 1, 1965





UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled, "A Study of Practices Employed by High School Principals in the Supervision of Instruction", submitted by Erwin Harold Ziolkowski, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.





## ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to determine differences in the supervisory practices of principals in high schools judged as superior and inferior according to overall effectiveness of the program of supervision of instruction.

Schools categorized as superior and inferior according to perceived success in the promotion of improvement in teaching effectiveness were compared on the basis of the frequency with which certain individual and group practices were employed, and on the basis of the general supervisory style of principals as perceived by teachers.

It was found that standard individual supervisory practices such as classroom visitation by principals and various forms of demonstration teaching were generally neglected and did not distinguish the categories.

Several differences between categories were found in the area of group practices. Teachers in the superior category of schools indicated that their staff meetings were planned so as to emphasize the discussion of teachers' classroom problems. They frequently reported the appointment of staff committees to study problems directly related to curricula or the classroom. By comparison, such practices tended to be neglected in the inferior category of schools.





Individual, informal consultation between principal and teacher under a variety of circumstances was commonly reported but did not significantly distinguish the categories.

The most significant differences between categories occurred in the area of the general supervisory style of principals as perceived by teachers. Teachers in the superior category of schools tended to think of their principal as a very hard worker, well prepared and keenly aware of what was going on in the classrooms. They tended to consider him interested in teachers as individuals. They felt that he planned the timetable so as to accommodate teachers' specialties. He consulted with teachers when making decisions which directly involved them and their work. They felt that he would support them when their classroom authority was threatened. Principals in the superior category actively encouraged teachers to try out new ideas in their classrooms. They promoted curriculum development activities in their schools.

Evidence produced by this study suggests strongly that where principals had succeeded in improving the classroom performance of teachers it was predominantly through motivation--removing frustration, and providing the stimulus required to enable teachers to function at their professional best.





## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to acknowledge the assistance given by Dr. J. H. M. Andrews in the initial stages of this study, and the kind criticism and advice offered by Dr. Fred Enns in the final preparation of this thesis.

Appreciation is also expressed to Mr. C. D. Peters, Chief Superintendent of Schools of the Province of Saskatchewan, and to the High School Superintendents, Principals, and Teachers for their ready co-operation in the data-gathering process.



# TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION. . . . .	1
The Problem . . . . .	3
Significance of the Problem . . . . .	4
Definitions and Delimitations . . . . .	6
Supervisory Techniques or Practices . . . . .	6
General Supervisory Style . . . . .	7
High Schools . . . . .	8
Principal . . . . .	8
Categories of Schools . . . . .	9
Basic Assumptions . . . . .	9
Limitations of the Study . . . . .	11
Overview of the Thesis . . . . .	11
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . . .	13
The Concept Supervision of Instruction . . . . .	14
Supervision and Administration . . . . .	14
Supervision and Organizational Theory . . . . .	16
The Strategic Position of the Principal . . . . .	19
Supervisory Functions . . . . .	21
The Improvement of Instruction . . . . .	23
The Inservice Program . . . . .	24
Motivation . . . . .	27





CHAPTER	PAGE
Related Studies . . . . .	30
The Nova Scotia Teachers' Union . . . . .	30
Malmberg . . . . .	32
Hrynyk . . . . .	33
Egnatoff . . . . .	34
Farrel . . . . .	35
Limitations of Previous Studies . . . . .	35
III. PROCEDURE . . . . .	38
The Sample . . . . .	38
Method of Selection of the Sample . . . . .	38
Response to the Appeal . . . . .	40
Nature of the Sample . . . . .	42
The Instrument . . . . .	43
Construction of the Questionnaire . . . . .	43
Format . . . . .	44
Sources of Questionnaire Items . . . . .	45
Validation and Revision . . . . .	45
Method of Administering the Questionnaire . . . . .	46
Treatment of Data . . . . .	47
Computer Program . . . . .	47
Statistical Tests of Significance . . . . .	47
IV. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA (PART I) . . . . .	49



## CHAPTER

## PAGE

## Conditions Related to Supervision

of Instruction . . . . . 49

Conditions Relating to the Principal . . 49

Principals' Experience . . . . . 49

Professional Training of Principals . . 51

Principals' Supervisory Load . . . . . 51

Principals' Teaching Load . . . . . 51

Conditions Relating to Teachers . . . . . 52

Teachers' Training . . . . . 52

Teachers' Experience and Rate of

Turnover . . . . . 53

Teachers' Sex and Marital Status . . . 53

Principals' Perception of the Importance

of the Supervisory Function . . . . . 54

Definition of Supervisory Responsibilities

by School Boards . . . . . 54

Principals' Perception of the Effectiveness

of Certain Practices . . . . . 57

Principals' Perception of Hindrances

to effective Supervision . . . . . 59

Records of Formal Supervision . . . . . 62

Summary . . . . . 62





CHAPTER	PAGE
Standard Supervisory Practices . . . . .	64
Formal Classroom Visits by Principals . .	64
Teacher Requested Visits . . . . .	68
Pre-arranged Visits . . . . .	68
Participation by Principals in	
Class Activities . . . . .	71
Average Length of Principals'	
Classroom Visits . . . . .	71
Conferences Following Visits . . . . .	74
Summary . . . . .	74
Routine Administrative Visits	
to Classrooms . . . . .	76
Observing Other Teachers in Their	
Classrooms . . . . .	78
Demonstration Lessons . . . . .	78
Summary . . . . .	80
Practices Directly Related to the Inservice	
Program . . . . .	82
Use of Staff Meetings . . . . .	82
Staff Study Committees . . . . .	83
Promotion of Teacher Participation in	
the Inservice Program . . . . .	85



CHAPTER	PAGE
Summary . . . . .	90
Other Forms of Consultation . . . . .	91
Social Contact Between Principal and Teacher . . . . .	91
Discussion of School Problems on Social Occasions . . . . .	92
Casual Principal-teacher Meetings in the School . . . . .	92
Principal-teacher Conferences . . . . .	95
Practical Assistance with Classroom Problems . . . . .	99
Summary . . . . .	101
V. ANALYSIS OF DATA (PART II) . . . . .	102
The Principal as an Example of Industry and Efficiency . . . . .	102
The Principal as a Hard Worker . . . . .	103
The Principal as Being Aware of What Goes on in Classrooms . . . . .	103
The Principal as One Consistently Well Prepared . . . . .	106
The Principal as One Applying Pressure on Teachers to Work Harder . . . . .	106
Summary . . . . .	109





CHAPTER	PAGE
The Principal's Consideration of Staff . .	109
Principals' Interest in Teachers	
as Individuals . . . . .	110
Principals' Approachability . . . . .	110
Principals' Consideration and	
the Timetable . . . . .	112
Teachers' Share in Decisions Regarding	
the School . . . . .	112
Summary . . . . .	115
The Principal and Representation of Staff .	117
Principal Support and Teachers'	
Classroom Authority . . . . .	117
The Principal and the Supply of	
Teaching Aids and Materials . . . . .	118
Summary . . . . .	121
The Principal as a Change Agent . . . . .	121
The Principal's Attitude Toward	
Curriculum Change . . . . .	121
The Principal's Attitude Toward Innovation	
in the Classroom . . . . .	122
Summary . . . . .	125
VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS . . . .	126



CHAPTER	PAGE
Summary . . . . .	126
The Problem . . . . .	126
Procedure . . . . .	127
Findings . . . . .	128
Conditions Indirectly Related to	
Supervision of Instruction . . . . .	128
Principals' Views Regarding Supervision	
of Instruction . . . . .	129
Standard Supervisory Practices . . . . .	130
Group Practices Related to the Inservice	
Program . . . . .	132
Other Forms of Consultation . . . . .	133
Teacher Perception of the General	
Supervisory Style of Principals . . . . .	134
Conclusions . . . . .	137
Implications . . . . .	140
Implications for Further Research . . . . .	141
Implications for Administrative	
Practice . . . . .	142
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	145
APPENDIX A. Initial Letter to Principals . . . . .	150
APPENDIX B. Instruction Sheet to Accompany	
Questionnaires . . . . .	152
APPENDIX C. Questionnaires . . . . .	154





## LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
I. Summary of Response to the Study . . . . .	41
II. Comparison of Means for Two Categories of Schools for Characteristics Related to Supervision . . . . .	50
III. Teacher Distribution by Sex and Marital Status	55
IV. Extent to Which Principals Feel They Should Be Responsible for Supervision of Instruction.	56
V. Extent of Definition of Supervisory Responsibilities by School Boards . . . . .	58
VI. Perceived Effectiveness of Practices for Keeping Informed on Teachers' Classroom Progress. .	60
VII. Perceived Hindrances to Effective Supervision of Instruction . . . . .	61
VIII. Extent to Which Principals Maintain Records of Formal Supervision . . . . .	63
IX. Incidence of Formal Classroom Visits by Principals . . . . .	67
X. Incidence of Formal Classroom Visits Being Requested by Teacher . . . . .	69
XI. Incidence of Formal Principal Visits to Classes Being Arranged Beforehand . . . . .	70



TABLE	PAGE
XII. Part Taken by Principal in Class Activities	
During Formal Classroom Visit . . . . .	72
XIII. Average Length of Formal Classroom Visits	
by Principal. . . . .	73
XIV. Incidence of Conferences with Principal	
Following Formal Classroom Visit . . . . .	75
XV. Incidence of Short, Routine, and Informal	
Principal Visits to Classrooms . . . . .	77
XVI. Incidence of Teacher Visits to Other Teachers'	
Classrooms to Observe Teaching . . . . .	79
XVII. Observation of Demonstration Lessons Taught	
by Principal or Visiting Teachers . . . . .	81
XVIII. Importance Attached to Using Staff Meetings	
for Discussion of Problems Related to	
Improvement of Instruction . . . . .	84
XIX. Appointment of Staff Committees to Study	
Problems in Teaching and Curricula . . . . .	86
XX. Incidence of Principals Encouraging Teachers	
to Participate in Inservice Education . . . . .	88
XXI. Incidence of Principals' Reference to	
Worthwhile Professional Literature . . . . .	89
XXII. Incidence of Social Contact Between	
Principal and Teachers . . . . .	93



TABLE	PAGE
XXIII. Incidence of Discussion of School Problems with Principal on Social Occasions . . . .	94
XXIV. Incidence of Teachers Discussing Classroom Matters with Principal on Occasion of Casual Meetings in the School . . . . .	96
XXV. Incidence of Principal-initiated Conferences in the Principal's Office . . . . .	97
XXVI. Incidence of Teacher-initiated Conferences in Principal's Office . . . . .	98
XXVII. Incidence of Principals Giving Practical Assistance to Teachers Regarding Classroom Work . . . . .	100
XXVIII. Teacher Perception of Principal as a Hard Worker . . . . .	104
XXIX. Teacher Perception of Principal as Being Aware of What Goes on in Class . . . . .	105
XXX. Teacher Perception of Principal as One Who is Well Prepared When Expected to Address a Group . . . . .	107
XXXI. Teacher Perception of Principal as One Who Applies Pressure to Get Teachers to Work Harder . . . . .	108





TABLE	PAGE
XXXII. Teacher Perception of Principal as Being Interested in Teacher as a Person and Interested about His Welfare . . . . .	111
XXXIII. Extent to Which Teacher Feels Free to Discuss Problems with Principal . . . . .	113
XXXIV. Teacher Perception of Principal as Making an Effort to Arrange Timetable so as to Take Advantage of Teachers' Specialties and Abilities . . . . .	114
XXXV. Teachers Feel that They Have a Share in Making Decisions Regarding Operation of the School . . . . .	116
XXXVI. Teacher Perception of Principal's Support of Teacher in Conflict with Parents or Students . . . . .	119
XXXVII. Teacher Perception of Principal as One Who Goes out of His Way to See that Teachers Are Supplied with Teaching Aids and Materials . . . . .	120
XXXVIII. Teacher Perception of Principal's Attitude Toward Curriculum Change . . . . .	123
XXXIX. Teacher Perception of Principal's Attitude Toward Teachers Who Are Interested in Trying out New Ideas in the Classroom . . .	124



## LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1. Major Functions of the School Operation . . .	15





## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Authorities in the field of educational administration generally regard supervision of instruction as one of the primary functions of the principalship. In emphasizing this point, it has been suggested that up to sixty per cent of the principal's time might well be devoted to activities directly related to the improvement of the school's instructional program.<sup>1,2</sup>

The term, "supervision of instruction" used in connection with duties of principals has been associated with one or two distinct practices, and particularly with formal classroom visitation. The result has been that principals have experienced some degree of conflict since the practice of formal classroom visitation raises several serious problems. To begin with, a comprehensive program of visitation, properly accompanied by pre-arrangements

---

<sup>1</sup> Harold Spears, Improving the Supervision of Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, 1953), p. 186.

<sup>2</sup> Ross L. Neagley and N. D. Evans, Handbook for Effective Supervision of Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, 1964), p. 87.



and post-conferences, would consume much more time than principals in even the most preferred situations have available. Secondly, there is still widespread uneasiness over formal classroom visitation among teachers as well as principals. The "inspector" approach which seemed to suggest that a good inspection should be able to turn up something adverse in every classroom still haunts many who experienced it and raises apprehension at the thought of an official visit. Finally, there is the question, still unresolved in many minds, of how much and what kind of supervision may be appropriate within a "professional" group.

In discussing the principal's supervisory role Spears agrees that if supervision of instruction were considered only as helping teachers in the classroom, then most principals would be prevented from doing justice to the task because of other responsibilities. He goes on to say:

But fortunately for the principalship, the modern conception of supervision is one of broad professional leadership. It represents the total influence that the principal exerts upon his school for a good instructional program. However, in following this theoretical directive some principals run into the danger of rationalizing themselves away from class-



room supervision and into nothing to take its place.<sup>3</sup>

In what ways are principals in fact performing the task of instructional supervision? To what extent is classroom visitation employed and to what extent are less formal techniques employed? Can particular practices or leadership styles be significantly associated with improvement of instruction? It was this latter area of the administrative function which this study proposed to explore.

## I. THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to determine differences in the supervisory practices of principals in high schools judged as superior and inferior according to the overall effectiveness of the program of supervision of instruction.

Schools categorized as superior and inferior according to perceived success in the promotion of improvement of teaching effectiveness were compared for the purpose of obtaining answers to the following questions:

---

<sup>3</sup> Spears, op. cit., p. 187.





1. Are there variables indirectly related to the supervisory function which significantly distinguish the two categories of schools?
2. What supervisory techniques are employed by principals in schools generally?
3. Are there significant differences in the views regarding the supervision of instruction held by the principals in the two categories of schools?
4. Are there significant differences in the extent to which particular practices are employed by principals in each of the two categories of schools?
5. Are there significant differences in the perceptions which teachers in the two categories of schools hold for their principals' general supervisory style?

## II. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

In an article which emphasizes the need for further research on problems related to instructional supervision Harris points out that very little work has been done to answer questions regarding the use of various supervisory activities for improving teacher behavior. He suggests that known supervisory practices be precisely tested for



their relative effectiveness in a variety of situations.<sup>4</sup> While Harris is speaking in terms of a massive undertaking, this study is an attempt to examine a small segment of the total problem.

Aside from the academic significance of the problem there is the immediate practical importance of providing information needed to reach decisions about the allotment of time and staff for supervision. As school boards recognize the importance of the supervisory role of the principal and allocate time for this function, it is justifiable that inquiries be made whether such functions are in fact being performed and whether time spent in this way is paying the dividends in teacher growth which the literature suggests it should.

While at least one board has requested this type of inquiry<sup>5</sup> others are asking questions of a related nature. Some boards are faced with the problem of deciding whether

---

<sup>4</sup> Ben M. Harris, "Need for Research in Instructional Supervision", Educational Leadership, XXI (November, 1963), pp. 129 - 135.

<sup>5</sup> Robert Bean Walls, "An Evaluation of Supervision in the Calgary Public Elementary and Junior High Schools", (Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1960), p. 3.





to employ additional supervisory staff attached to the central office, or to provide more supervision time for principals. At the present time there is little research-based evidence to assist them in such decisions. This study represents an attempt to uncover facts which may be of value in making such operational decisions.

### III. DEFINITIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

Terms used in the statement of the problem are defined in this section.

Supervisory Techniques or Practices. Supervisory techniques, or practices in the supervision of instruction, refers to ways in which principals go about the task of helping teachers in their schools, either singly or in groups, to improve the effectiveness of their teaching. The study limits itself to those techniques which are used in the local school situation. It is limited to those practices which relate directly to improving the teacher's effectiveness in the classroom. The study is not directly concerned with problems of the administration of facilities, materiel, or the recruitment, orientation and promotion of personnel, nor does it involve group



techniques which are organized at the system, superintendency, or provincial levels except insofar as principals encourage participation or engage in phases of such programs at the school level.

No attempt has been made to distinguish between "techniques" and "practices" since the literature appears to use these words interchangeably.

General Supervisory Style. The manner in which the principal carries out the supervisory function is referred to as supervisory style. While particular formal and informal acts are emphasized when reference is made to supervisory techniques it is proposed, under the heading of supervisory style, to extend the study to the more subtle aspects of supervision. It is possible, for instance, that the principal may effectively motivate teachers by such means as setting a personal example of careful planning and hard work, showing recognition and appreciation of teachers' efforts and consideration for their feelings. Possibly he can stimulate professional growth by demonstrating that teachers' views are given careful consideration when decisions are to be made, and that the administration values and actively supports a spirit of inquiry and progressiveness.



Concepts and theory related to supervisory style will be further developed in Chapter II, "Review of Literature".

High Schools. In Saskatchewan, high schools are defined to be one or more rooms or departments maintained exclusively for pupils above grade eight.<sup>6</sup> It should be pointed out that such schools may also include grades one to eight under the same administration.

For the purpose of this study schools were selected which employed at least four full-time teachers in the high school grades. High schools in the larger cities of Regina, Moose Jaw, and Saskatoon were not included in the sample. Thus schools in the sample ranged in size of staff from four to twenty-seven teachers.

Principal. The Saskatchewan School Act states that every school in which more teachers than one are employed the head teacher is called the principal.<sup>7</sup> Where school districts include grades one through twelve it is common practice for one principal to be in charge of both the

---

<sup>6</sup>The School Act (Regina: The Queen's Printer, 1954), sec. 2(8).

<sup>7</sup>Ibid., sec. 226.





elementary and high school departments, particularly if they are located in the same building or in a group of buildings in close proximity to one another.

Categories of Schools. The six provincially appointed superintendents of high schools were asked to evaluate the high schools in their respective zones in terms of a global estimate of the degree to which each school was perceived to promote improvement in the teaching effectiveness of its staff. On the basis of this evaluation each of the six superintendents was then asked to identify the four schools he rated highest and the four schools he rated lowest. Schools thus selected from each of the six zones were categorized as superior and inferior. Throughout this report the superior category is referred to as Category A and the inferior category is referred to as Category B.

#### IV. BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

The study was undertaken subject to the following basic assumptions:

1. That superintendents' ratings of schools were both reliable and valid. It is recognized that impressions



which are formed on the basis of an annual visit to a school must of necessity be global and subjective. The possibility exists that superintendents may have been influenced in their ratings by factors other than the strict criterion of improvement in instruction. Since, however, only the extremes of the scale were included in the sample, it was concluded that no serious error would be introduced at this level.

2. That the questionnaire would evoke accurate and objective descriptions of the nature and extent of supervisory practices as experienced and perceived by individual teachers.

3. That the scales employed in the questionnaire are adequate to meet the requirements of the statistical tests employed. Alternates in the multiple-choice items were designed along a Likert-type scale.<sup>8</sup> Since this meets the general requirements of ordinal scales it was concluded that the assumptions for nonparametric tests were satisfied.

4. That the variables under study are normally distributed in the population from which the sample was drawn.

---

<sup>8</sup> Claire Selltitz, et al., Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1963), p. 367.





## V. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was limited to Saskatchewan high schools which employed between four and twenty-seven teachers in their high school departments. It included only such supervisory practices as might reasonably be performed by principals rather than special supervisory staff. Inferences drawn from the study regarding the supervision of instruction must therefore be applied with caution to situations which lie outside these limits.

## VI. OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

Chapter II of this study reviews the related literature. Beginning with the theoretical aspects of the concept Supervision of Instruction, it goes on to review a number of related studies and concludes with a discussion of some of the limitations of these studies.

Chapter III, describing the procedure which was followed in this study, discusses the nature of the sample, the instrument, and the method which was used in the treatment of data.

Chapters IV and V include the analysis of the data. Chapter IV examines data based on the conditions relating



to the supervision of instruction in the schools, and on the more formal aspects of supervisory practice. Chapter V treats the data based on teacher perception of the principal's general supervisory style.

Chapter VI, the final chapter, summarizes the study. Conclusions which have been drawn on the basis of the findings are discussed, and a number of implications of the study for the administrative function and for further research are listed.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

To consider the supervision of instruction as part of the principal's role is a comparatively recent development. Provincial school acts which have not been recently revised portray the principal as the "head teacher" whose chief responsibility lies in co-ordinating the activities of the staff-- calling staff meetings, exercising school discipline, and assigning special duties to his assistants.<sup>1</sup> The more recent literature recognizes the principalship as uniquely situated to perform what is increasingly being recognized as a vital administrative function, namely, assisting teachers to achieve and to apply a high level of professional competence.

This chapter discusses the non-research literature with a view to developing a concept of "Supervision of Instruction" showing how this function is related to administrative and organizational theory, how the principalship lends itself to this function, and how this function may

---

<sup>1</sup>The School Act (Regina: The Queen's Printer, 1954), sec. 226, 227.





be implemented. The chapter concludes with a review of related studies and a brief discussion of some of the limitations seen in them.

## I. THE CONCEPT SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

Supervision has been defined by Harris as:

What school personnel do with adults and things in order to maintain or change the operation of the school in order to directly influence the attainment of the school's major instructional goals.<sup>2</sup>

Spears applies supervision more particularly to the principalship when he says, "It represents the total influence that the principal exerts upon his school for a good instructional program".<sup>3</sup> Thus it is seen that a fairly broad interpretation can be given to the term.

### Supervision and Administration

Harris conceptualizes the general administrative function as two-dimensional-- pupil related on the one

---

<sup>2</sup> Ben M. Harris, Supervisory Behavior in Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, incorporated, 1963), p. 11.

<sup>3</sup> Harold Spears, Improving the Supervision of Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, 1953), p. 187.



hand, and instruction related on the other. Certain behaviors such as organizing a lunchroom are regarded as directly pupil related and indirectly instruction related. Teaching is directly related along both dimensions while certain management functions such as planning for new school construction are indirectly related along both dimensions. The supervision function is seen as directly instruction-related and remotely pupil-related. Most

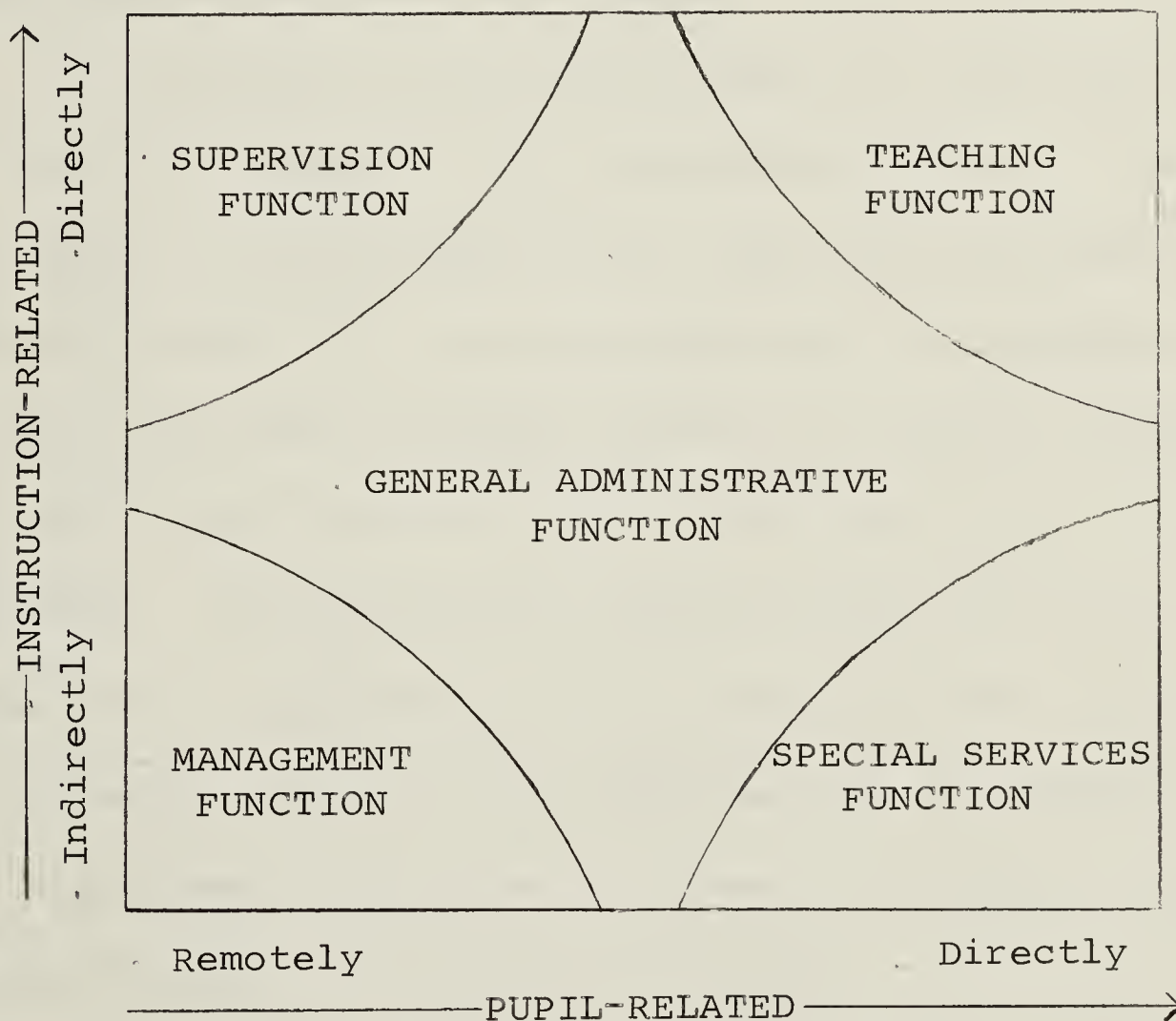


FIGURE 1

MAJOR FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL OPERATION



administrative activity falls into the "general administration" area which is approximately midway along the two dimensions.<sup>4</sup>

This interpretation accentuates the importance of supervision in the total administrative function by demonstrating how close it comes to the ultimate objective of the whole educational organization, namely the facilitation of the teaching-learning process.

#### Supervision and Organization Theory

In discussing theoretical aspects of the supervisory role from the standpoint of organizational theory, Blau and Scott point out that supervisors, like all individuals in management positions, are confronted with the problem of extending the scope of formal authority to which the employee obligates himself when he accepts the legal contract of employment. Since the legal contract calls for only a minimum level of performance the supervisor must devise ways and means of encouraging employees to go beyond this legal requirement if they are to exert real effort, accept responsibilities, or exercise initiative.

---

<sup>4</sup>Harris, op. cit., p. 7.





A number of ways are suggested in which management personnel may be able to widen their sphere of influence over employees beyond formal sanctions. These are based, not in a strategy of domination, but rather in a leadership style which tends to obligate subordinates to the supervisor. By assisting subordinates in various ways-- training and advising them in preparation for promotion, facilitating their work by seeing that tools are of good quality and readily available, representing their cause with top management, and performing special favours-- the superior creates social obligations to himself which cause subordinates to feel that they should reciprocate by complying with special requests and demands.

While the supervisor's formal status and official power could be used as sanctions to coerce his staff to do his bidding, they would be more effectively employed if they were used as means to create social obligations. Thus he would broaden his influence over his staff and promote willing compliance with his directives.

When such social obligations for the supervisor are shared by the group it becomes a group norm to comply with the supervisor's requests. These norms of allegiance and respect are enforced by the group because it is in the



general interest that all members honour their obligations to the supervisor. In this way the extension of the supervisor's power beyond legally prescribed limits is legitimated.<sup>5</sup>

Applying this general theory more particularly to the supervisory function of the principal it is suggested that the principal's status as educational leader within the school may be extended by such means as (a) making sure that teaching aids are in good supply and obtainable with a minimum of formality, (b) representing the personal interests of staff with top level administration, (c) showing interest and giving advice with respect to teachers' classroom and professional problems, (d) facilitating the obtaining of special concessions for teachers.

Whether the extension of the principal's power by these means will in fact lead to the improvement of the school's instructional program depends ultimately upon the degree to which the principal is perceived to be personally committed to improving the educational program which his school offers.

---

<sup>5</sup> Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962), pp. 140 - 164.



### The Strategic Position of the Principal

Having defined supervision of instruction, on the one hand, in terms of doing things to influence directly the attainment of the school's instructional goals, and on the other, in terms of broad educational leadership, suggests strongly that the principal-- a resident, generalist administrator at the middle level-- may be uniquely situated to provide instructional supervision of this type.<sup>6</sup> His status in the administrative structure gives him power to regulate many of the conditions affecting the instructional program. At the same time his location in constant proximity to the teaching staff permits him to function effectively as educational leader.

Reeves supports this point of view when he portrays the principal as an administrator whose major task is to enhance teaching and learning. He goes on to say that the task of supervision includes all those activities which the principal undertakes to help his staff do a more efficient job of teaching. The precise nature of these activities varies from one situation to another.<sup>7</sup>

---

<sup>6</sup> John H. M. Andrews, "Who Shall Supervise?" Lecture delivered at Canadian Education Association Short Course, 1960. (Mimeo.)

<sup>7</sup> A. W. Reeves, "The Role of the Principal", in A. W. Reeves, et al. (eds.), The Canadian School Principal (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, Limited, 1962), p. 38.







## The Association for Supervision and Curriculum

Development further emphasizes the supervisory role of the principal when it says:

Within the limitations of personnel and physical resources of a given situation, the role of the principal of the individual school is potentially one of the most influential for improving the teaching-learning process. In spite of all his varied responsibilities, including building management and public relations, the principal's primary role remains that of instructional leadership.<sup>8</sup>

In many schools, and particularly in the smaller ones, the principal may be required to carry a full teaching load in addition to his administrative duties. McKean and Mills point out that while the small school principal is beset with problems of insufficient supervisory time, high rate of staff turnover, and non-specialized staff, he has the advantage of being personally involved in every aspect of the school's program. He knows intimately each teacher-- his strengths and weaknesses-- and is in a good position to provide dynamic, informal leadership.

Large schools create other problems for the principal. Overloaded with managerial duties he tends to lose contact

---

<sup>8</sup> Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Leadership for Improving Instruction, Yearbook, 1960, (Washington: National Education Association), p. 110.



with what goes on in the classrooms. As a co-ordinator and educational leader he can still exercise an effective supervisory function as far as improvement in instruction is concerned. Even though direct consultation and class-room visitation may be assigned to assistants, the principal is still in a key position to motivate his staff, to remove sources of frustration, and to seek to identify the goals of the institution with the goals of the individual staff member.<sup>9</sup>

The principal who for various reasons may be prevented from carrying out particular supervisory practices which are normally associated with a good supervisory program may nevertheless be instrumental in promoting teacher growth if this is a vital objective of his total activity.

### Supervisory Functions

The supervisory functions have been organized under four broad headings:

1. Staffing, which includes activities related to recruitment, selection, placement, and retention of staff,

---

<sup>9</sup> Robert C. McKean, and H. H. Mills, The Supervisor (Washington: Centre for Applied Research in Education, Incorporated, 1964), pp. 26 - 28.



also involves evaluation of teachers for purposes of tenure, promotion, transfer, and dismissal.

2. Motivation and stimulation, which involves providing leadership in removing frustration and other obstacles to good teaching as well as providing leadership directed toward professionalism and good morale.

3. Consultation, either with individuals or in groups, toward the solution of specific teaching problems. This function is also effected through encouraging teachers to grow professionally through private study and inservice education.

4. Program Development, refers to the method, techniques, timing, and aids to be employed in putting the prescribed curriculum into practice.<sup>10</sup>

In considering the appropriateness of the principalship for the carrying out of these functions one may well hesitate in assigning the first, involving the formal evaluation of teachers. It is quite obvious, however, that the remaining three lend themselves well to the principal's particular situation.

---

<sup>10</sup> Frederick Enns, "Supervision: A Rationale", Canadian Administrator, II (April, 1963), pp. 27 - 30.





Andrews supports this view when he states that although the principal is uniquely situated to carry out the supervisory functions he becomes involved in conflict between his role as an evaluator in the line function and his role as consultant in the staff function.<sup>11</sup> Teachers, knowing that the principal may be called upon to report on their teaching effectiveness may well hesitate in bringing their problems to him for fear that in so doing they may place their tenure in jeopardy. The suggestion is that as far as is practical the principal be relieved of the line function of having to report formally on the performance of his staff.

### The Improvement of Instruction

There is evidence to show that teachers will improve their performance in the classroom if (a) they learn more about their subject and how it can be presented more effectively, and (b) they become more highly motivated to use the abilities they already have. If the principal is to be instrumental in improving instruction it will have to be due

---

<sup>11</sup> John H. M. Andrews, "The Principal-- A Unique Supervisor", in Reeves, et al. (eds.), The Canadian School Principal (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, Limited, 1962), p. 61.



to his activity in these two areas. As a consultant he will promote an effective program of inservice education. As a motivator he will be instrumental in removing frustration and in providing the stimulus required to enable teachers to function at their professional best.<sup>12</sup>

The Inservice Program. Improvement of instruction implies change. Numbers of authorities have emphasized the point made by Ingram when he stated that as a change agent within the school the principal can foster a climate that will enable staff to accept and even to initiate change. It has been demonstrated that innovation becomes acceptable as it is perceived to have originated with the group.<sup>13</sup> While this statement was originally intended to apply to curriculum change it is undoubtedly just as applicable to the improvement of instruction. In fact Spears suggests that the inservice program cannot be separated either in spirit or function from curriculum planning and supervision. The three represent overlapping

---

<sup>12</sup> Ibid, p. 62.

<sup>13</sup> E. J. Ingram, "Creating Readiness in the Staff", in L. W. Downey, et al. (eds.), Organization-- A Means to Improved Instruction (Edmonton: The Policy Committee, Leadership Course for Principals, 1962), p. 140.



features of instructional improvement.<sup>14</sup>

In the same vein Castetter points out that the chief responsibility of school administration for the inservice program is to create both the climate and the opportunities for self-improvement.

Administration does not develop people; people develop themselves. Administration can do much to facilitate self-development, but the key to personal improvement is internal rather than external.<sup>15</sup>

Miklos gets at this same problem in a discussion of the relationship between school climate and program development.<sup>16</sup> Although school climate is at present an ill defined and somewhat nebulous concept it is receiving a great deal of attention because it shows promise of containing clues to problems in this area of social relationships within the school.

Another aspect of the inservice program which tends at times to be overlooked is that it is essentially a

---

<sup>14</sup> Harold Spears, Curriculum Planning Through Inservice Programs (Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1957), p. 43.

<sup>15</sup> William B. Castetter, Administering the School Personnel Program (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1962), p. 258.

<sup>16</sup> Erwin Miklos, "School Climate and Program Development", The Canadian Administrator, IV (April, 1965), pp. 25 - 28.







problem in adult education and as such needs to be approached in the light of certain concepts based in the behavioral sciences. Some of these are summarized as follows:

1. Adult learning is a personal matter involving, to begin with, certain changes in point of view. Since it has been shown that persons are more inclined to re-examine their views within the framework of small congenial groups or person-to-person contacts, it follows that small-group activity lends itself to the inservice program.

2. Adult learning is often preceded by unlearning--abandoning previous patterns of thought and behavior. This process takes place more efficiently in non-threatening situations.

3. Adult learning is facilitated by active involvement in activities which make use of newly presented concepts and skills.

4. Adult learning is more easily motivated in situations free from feelings of alienation. An atmosphere conducive to an effective inservice program is one in which the goals of the institution are perceived to coincide with the goals of the individual.<sup>17</sup>

---

17

D. A. Mackay, " Inservice Education-- A Strategy for Staff Development", in F. Enns(ed.), The Principal and Program Development (Edmonton: Leadership Course for School Principals, 1964), pp. 65 - 74.



The consensus of the literature appears to be that the principal's role in the inservice program is one of promoting a climate conducive to change, and creating situations which facilitate teacher learning.

Motivation. A detailed discussion of the principal's role as motivator would overlap much of what has already been stated. Activities on the part of the supervisor which may be used to create social obligations toward himself on the part of the staff could equally well be presented as ways in which he might motivate his staff. Much of what has been presented under the heading, "Inservice Education" really amounts to motivation. In order to provide some conceptual background for this discussion, two relevant concepts of motivation will be identified.

Maslow has advanced the concept of the hierarchy of needs which strongly suggests that if an individual is to be released to pursue the top level self-actualizing needs he must first of all be freed from the frustration of the unsatisfied, basic physiological needs and from the fear of losing the basic security he presently enjoys. The concept does not view threats of punishment through unemployment and loss of prestige as effective ways of motivating individuals, like teachers, who are expected to operate at levels well beyond the minimal requirements of the labor



contract. The suggestion, on the other hand, is that by assuring the individual that his basic physical, safety, and status needs will continue to be met, he is released to pursue other, more lofty, less selfish objectives.<sup>18</sup>

Clark cites evidence from industrial research in support of this theory.<sup>19</sup>

Argyris proposes a theory of motivation with particular implications for organizational behavior. He hypothesizes that human personality develops along continua in a number of dimensions-- passivity to activity, dependence to independence, simple skills to complex ones, subordinate to superior, from a lack of self-awareness to a sense of self-worth and integrity. The individual who is expected in his work situation to operate at a level significantly different from his level of development suffers frustration which ultimately leads to various forms of aggression.<sup>20</sup>

---

<sup>18</sup> A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954), pp. 80 - 106.

<sup>19</sup> James V. Clark, "Motivation in Work Groups: a Tentative View", in T. W. Costello and S. S. Zalkind (eds.) Psychology in Administration (Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1963), pp. 106 - 122.

<sup>20</sup> Chris Argyris, "The Individual and the Organization: Some Problems of Mutual Adjustment", Administrative Science Quarterly, II (June, 1957), pp. 1 - 24.







This point of view appears to be particularly relevant to the school situation in the area of teacher participation in the decision-making process. Teachers are normally expected to be mature, professional individuals. It would follow, therefore, that they should enjoy a degree of independence and freedom to make certain decisions relative to their professional activities.

Morley underlines a number of key concepts relative to this area of supervisory practice when he emphasizes the importance of allowing teachers to exercise initiative in innovation and experimentation, of avoiding over-supervision, of recognizing that not all innovations succeed and that due allowance must be made for this.<sup>21</sup>

In a similar vein, it has been stated that there is a need, not only for the principal to involve his staff in responsibility for dealing with problems faced by the school, but also to convince them that it is appropriate for them to share this function. It is desirable to include those persons in the decision-making process who are going to be

---

<sup>21</sup> Franklin Morley, "The Roles of Supervisors and Administrators", in Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Individualizing Instruction, Yearbook, 1964, pp. 125 - 158.



affected by the decisions. Knowing that he had a share in making the decision gives the teacher a personal stake in the success of the venture.<sup>22</sup>

The gist of Maslow's and also of Argyris' theory appears to be that individuals tend to operate at a motivational level which is fairly close to that which they perceive to be expected of them. A supervisory style which suggests that teachers need to be carefully watched will engender teacher behavior that bears close watching. On the other hand, a supervisory style which suggests that teachers are competent professionals-- partners in the business of operating the school-- will result in high level, professional behavior.

## II. RELATED STUDIES

In this section a number of studies are reviewed which are related, or have a direct bearing upon this study.

The Nova Scotia Teachers' Union. In 1963 the Nova Scotia Teachers' Union published the report of a survey

---

22

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Leadership for Improving Instruction, Yearbook, 1960, pp. 107 - 110.



which was undertaken to determine the nature and extent of supervision practiced in Nova Scotia schools, and to assess the values placed by teachers on particular practices.

It was found that 44 per cent of teachers in the sample had received no supervisory visit from their principal or anyone else in the school during an eight month period, while 66 per cent reported fewer than three visits. It was reported that 14 per cent of teachers had received no visits from any type of supervisor while 48 per cent had received fewer than three visits in an eight month period. The median number of visits reported by all teachers in the sample was 2.6.

Schools with pupil enrolments between 250 and 400 tended to have the longest visits with times dropping off sharply for both larger and smaller schools. Teachers with lower qualifications, who taught in lower grades and in smaller schools, tended to be visited most often.

The extent to which supervisory practices other than classroom visitation were used was not reported.

In ranking principals' supervisory practices according to teacher preference it was found that practices involving informal leadership and teacher participation were preferred. This included giving advice upon request, supporting teachers in conflict with parents, complimenting







teachers on work well done, discussing classroom situations, and presenting school needs to the Board. Practices which were not favored included writing reports on teachers, bringing in special speakers, observing classroom teaching in other teachers' rooms, giving demonstration lessons, and having teacher institutes.<sup>23</sup>

Malmberg. In a study of the supervisory function of the supervising principals in the New Brunswick regional school districts, it was reported that principals generally recognized the importance of supervision of instruction as one of their functions. School boards, while not making any formal policy statements with regard to supervision, were understood to expect some type of supervision. There was no provision made, either in terms of time free from teaching duties, or otherwise, to enable principals to undertake supervisory activities during school hours.

Testing programs and staff meetings appeared to be the main supervisory practices employed. Devices such as

---

23

Nova Scotia Teachers' Union, A Look at Supervisory Practices in Nova Scotia Schools, Study No. 4, by the Research and Curriculum Committees of the Nova Scotia Teachers' Union (Halifax: Nova Scotia Teachers' Union, 1963).



institutes or workshops, which might have been practical in these situations were not reported as being used. Principals stated that they would like to devote more time to classroom visitation and attendant activities. An average of 3.06 hours per week was reported spent in supervision.<sup>24</sup>

Hrynyk. The opinions of teachers and principals in the West Jasper Place Public Schools in Alberta were examined regarding the relative desirability of supervisory functions in the program of improvement of instruction. The study dealt with 105 supervisory services on a three-point desirability scale. By means of ranked medians the least and most desired areas of supervision were identified.

Consensus on the most desirable functions centred about curriculum development and maintenance of morale. Least desired included classroom visitation, evaluation of teachers' services and demonstration teaching. The study concluded with recommendations that principals pay more attention to aspects of supervision concerned with curriculum and morale, and that programs of visitation and

---

<sup>24</sup> Harvey Malmberg, "The Principal as a Supervisor of Instruction in the Regional School districts of New Brunswick" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1963).



demonstration teaching be re-examined.<sup>25</sup>

Egnatoff. In a paper delivered in 1956, Egnatoff reported the findings of a survey conducted among schools in Saskatchewan. It was found that only 15 per cent of principals rated supervision of instruction as very important compared to 31 per cent of teachers and 38 per cent of school boards.

Practices which teachers considered to be of value were: (a) classroom visits made upon request, (b) staff meetings specifically planned toward instructional improvement, (c) conferences with groups of teachers having common problems, (d) parent-teacher-principal conferences, and (e) institutes planned toward evaluating the school program.

Egnatoff concluded that the number of supervisory tasks which needed doing, which were requested by teachers and expected by school boards, indicated an urgent need that principals be relieved of part of their teaching load in order to provide time for the carrying out of these functions. He emphasized the need for a program of in-service education for principals and for a critical

---

<sup>25</sup> Nick L. Hrynyk, "Supervisory Needs: West Jasper Place Public Schools (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1963).







evaluation of principals' functions in order that principals might be enabled more adequately to fulfill their leadership roles within their schools.<sup>26</sup>

Farrel. Representative of the findings of American studies which were examined are those by Farrel. Farrel found that negro principals in Tennessee did not function extensively in tasks related to instructional improvement. None were pleased with their own level of performance. Generally, there was a large discrepancy between what was being done and what should be done according to criteria established in the literature.<sup>27</sup>

#### V. LIMITATIONS OF PREVIOUS STUDIES

Most studies related to the supervision of instruction were found to be concerned with the opinions and preferences of teachers and administrators. All the findings tended to agree with the view expressed by Francis S. Chase when he says:

---

<sup>26</sup> John G. Egnatoff, "The Principalship in Saskatchewan", (a paper read at Leadership Course for School Principals, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1956) in Leadership Course for Principals, 1956 (mimeographed), pp. 99 - 109.

<sup>27</sup> James Edward Farrel, "The Self-perceived Role of the Negro Principal in Improving Instructional Supervision in Tennessee", (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1963), Dissertation Abstracts, 24:2333.



A satisfied staff is one in which the administrator expresses concern and interest in the welfare of his staff. Teachers are more concerned with praise than with some of the more direct means of assistance in the improvement of instruction.<sup>28</sup>

A number of studies tended to equate the effectiveness of a supervisory technique as a means of achieving improvement in instruction with the degree to which it was preferred by teachers and principals. Conversely, practices which were not popular tended to be discounted as also being ineffective and their continued use was questioned.

No study was found which attempted to relate the actual application of certain supervisory techniques to some criteria of improvement in instruction.

Studies which investigated the frequency with which particular practices were employed concentrated on the more formal practices such as classroom visitation, conferences, demonstration lessons, and supervisory bulletins. Findings indicated that very little of this type of supervision was being done.

This study attempted to overcome some of the

---

<sup>28</sup>

Francis S. Chase, "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale", Administrator's Notebook, I (March, 1953).



limitations of previous studies in the following ways:

1. Rather than investigating preferences of teachers and administrators for certain supervisory practices this study attempted to determine the frequency with which these practices were employed.

2. In addition to investigating only the more formal and semi-formal techniques this study was extended to the informal techniques and the supervisory style of principals as perceived by teachers.

3. This study sought to establish an associative relationship between the supervisory practices employed by the principal and a criterion of the overall effectiveness of his school in promoting improvement in instruction.





## CHAPTER III

### PROCEDURE

This chapter discusses the nature of the sample from which the data were obtained. It describes the instrument and the methods which were employed in the data collection. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the procedures which were used in processing the data.

#### I. THE SAMPLE

The sample used in this study was drawn from a population consisting of the principals and all full-time teachers of those high schools in Saskatchewan which employ between four and twenty-seven teachers. Smaller high schools in the more outlying areas, and the larger high schools in the main cities-- Regina, Saskatoon, and Moose Jaw-- were excluded because it was reasoned that schools at the extremes in terms of size would introduce additional variables such that it would be difficult to associate the criterion with the independent variables which were to be examined.

Method of Selection of the Sample. Having received approval to carry out this study from the chief superintendent



of schools of the Saskatchewan Department of Education, and from the executive of the Saskatchewan Teacher's Federation, the investigator requested that each of the six provincially-appointed superintendents of high schools nominate eight schools from their respective zones. The selection was to be made in the following manner:

1. Consider schools in the zone which employ four or more full-time teachers in the high-school department.
2. Consider only schools outside the three main cities-- Regina, Saskatoon, Moose Jaw.
3. Consider each of the qualifying schools on the basis of the following criterion: How successful does this school appear to be in promoting improvement in the teaching effectiveness of its staff?
4. On the basis of this criterion, identify:
  - (a) the four schools which rank highest, and
  - (b) the four schools which rank lowest.

Principals of each of the forty-eight schools thus selected were then contacted by means of a letter, a copy of which is included as Appendix A of this report. This letter described the nature of the proposed study, gave assurances that replies would be held in confidence, and requested that principals reply indicating their willingness



to co-operate. Principals were asked to name a responsible staff member who would receive the questionnaire forms, administer, and return them.

Response to the Appeal. Response to the appeal to participate in the study and the rate of questionnaire return is summarized in Table I. Replies agreeing to co-operate were received from thirty-eight schools. There were five principals who declined to participate and five who failed to reply even after two further letters were sent in efforts to obtain responses. Of those who agreed to participate, two schools failed to return the completed questionnaires in spite of the fact that three reminders were sent.

It was possible for the investigator to pay informal visits to seven of the more centrally located schools which were slow in responding. Each of these subsequently returned completed questionnaires.

It is interesting to compare the rate of response on the basis of category of schools. A combined response of just over eighty per cent was made up of a response of over ninety per cent of the category-A schools and just under sixty per cent of the category-B schools.





TABLE I  
SUMMARY OF RESPONSE TO THE STUDY

	CATEGORY A	CATEGORY B	COMBINED
Schools contacted	24	24	48
Schools agreeing to co-operate	22	16	38
Schools declining to co-operate	2	3	5
Schools, no reply	0	5	5
Schools agreed to co-operate, but failed to return Q's	0	2	2
Teachers' forms sent out	321	168	489
Completed teacher forms received	296	100	396
Rate of return on teachers' forms	92.2%	59.5%	81.0%
Rate of return by schools	91.6%	58.4%	80.9%



Nature of the Sample. It has been pointed out that the population with which this study was concerned included the principals and all full-time teachers in the intermediate sized high schools of Saskatchewan. It was assumed that the variables under investigation were normally distributed in the population.

The two groups, identified as category-A and category-B, were considered to have been selected from the extremes of this population distribution. In other words, the two groups included principals and teachers from the superior and the inferior schools but the average schools were not included. As such, the two groups might be considered as having been drawn from two distinct populations. On the one hand there are those in schools perceived to be high in promoting improvement in instruction, and on the other, those perceived to be low.

Where tests of significance are applied with respect to a particular variable the null hypothesis in every case assumes that there is no difference between the two groups for that variable. In other words, the null hypothesis assumes that members of both groups were drawn from a population in which the variable in question was normally distributed. When the null hypothesis is rejected, the



alternative hypothesis-- that the groups came from two distinct populations in terms of the variable in question-- is accepted.

Since the groups were originally selected on the basis of the criterion, it is inferred, whenever the null hypothesis is rejected, that the groups are distinct from each other, not in terms of the criterion alone but also in terms of the experimental variable. Rejection of the null hypothesis infers concomitant variation. It is pointed out that this represents low-level establishment of a causal relationship-- simply that of association.<sup>1</sup>

## II. THE INSTRUMENT

Data used in this study were obtained through the use of two questionnaires-- one for principals and another for teachers. Copies of each of the forms are included in this report as Appendix C.

### Construction of the Questionnaire

Since no suitable instrument was found for the

---

<sup>1</sup> Claire Selltitz, et al., Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, incorporated, 1963), pp. 83 - 94.





purpose of this study it was required that a questionnaire be constructed.

Format. Factors considered in planning the format were that the questionnaire should be simple to complete and that data should be easily transferable to IBM data cards for computer processing. Two types of question format were used. The first, calling for information about the school, the principal, and the teachers, required specific numerical responses. The second, involving multiple-choice items, required responses on a Likert-type scale.

In the principals' questionnaire, introductory questions called for numerical data concerning the school, the principal, and the teachers. The main section of the questionnaire was concerned with (a) degree to which school-board policy defined supervisory duties of principals, (b) extent to which principals feel responsible for supervision of instruction, (c) practices found to be most effective in keeping informed about what goes on in classrooms, and (d) conditions perceived to be hindrances to effective supervision.

The teachers' questionnaire was in three sections as follows: (a) background information, (b) report of the



incidence of particular supervisory practices as experienced over the past school year, and (c) report of principal's general supervisory style as perceived by the individual teacher.

Sources of Questionnaire Items. Items used in the questionnaires were formulated on the basis of concepts derived from the literature and from personal observation of the supervisory behavior of principals over a period of years. Neagley and Evans were particularly helpful in the construction of items pertaining to standard supervisory practices.<sup>2</sup> Items inquiring into general supervisory style of principals were primarily formulated from the theory discussed by Blau and Scott.<sup>3</sup> Halpin and Croft were also of assistance in this regard.<sup>4</sup> None of the questionnaire items could be abstracted verbatim from instruments employed by other investigators.

Validation and Revision. The questionnaire items were checked for face validity and general clarity by

---

<sup>2</sup> Ross L. Neagley and N. Dean Evans, Handbook for Effective Supervision of Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Incorporated, 1964).

<sup>3</sup> Peter Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962).

<sup>4</sup> Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Midwest Administration Centre, University of Chicago, 1963).



individual colleagues of the investigator and by a seminar group consisting of post-graduate students in the Department of Educational Administration. The questionnaire was revised on the basis of suggestions received.

The questionnaires were then submitted to two schools in Saskatchewan for a pilot run. No major discrepancies were noted at this stage.

#### Method of Administering the Questionnaire

Principals who agreed to co-operate were asked to name a reliable staff member who would receive the questionnaire forms, administer, and return them to the investigator. The purpose for this action was twofold. It was intended to relieve the principal of additional responsibilities and at the same time it was intended that this device would give further assurance to teachers that their responses would remain completely confidential.

The confidential nature of the study was further emphasized in a number of ways.

1. No personal identification of any kind was called for on any of the questionnaires.

2. Each respondent was provided with an envelope in which his completed questionnaire was to be sealed before it was returned.







3. Teachers, as well as principals and high-school superintendents, were assured that details regarding any individual, school, or locality would not be revealed at any time.

A copy of the instruction sheet which accompanied the questionnaire forms is included as Appendix B of this study.

### III. TREATMENT OF THE DATA

Data obtained from the questionnaire forms was punched into IBM data cards for computer processing.

Computer Program. A computer program was written to calculate means,  $t$  tests for differences of means, and F ratios for data on the interval scale. Frequency counts on multiple-choice items were taken for each alternate by category and chi-square was calculated for each multiple-choice item. The program was verified using a small, hand-calculated sample and was found to be accurate.

Statistical Tests of Significance. From the standpoint of statistics the data are of two varieties, (a) strictly numerical values which constitute interval scales, and (b) frequency counts on multiple-choice items which constitute ordinal scales.



Data which qualified on the interval scale were subjected to the t test for the significance of differences between means.<sup>5</sup> In each case, the F ratio was calculated to insure that samples met the assumption of homogeneity of variance.<sup>6</sup> The null hypothesis, that there was no difference between the two categories for the variable under consideration, was rejected at the .05 level of significance.

Data drawn from the responses to multiple-choice items were subjected to frequency counts for each alternate by category. Frequencies were converted to percentages in order to facilitate analysis of the distributions. Chi-square was calculated on contingency tables comparing observed and expected frequencies of choices for each multiple-choice item.<sup>7</sup> The null hypothesis, that there was no difference between the observed and expected distribution of frequencies, was rejected at the .05 level of significance.

---

<sup>5</sup> George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, incorporated, 1959), p. 136.

<sup>6</sup> Ibid., p. 138.

<sup>7</sup> Ibid., pp. 161 - 169.



## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF DATA (PART I)

Chapters IV and V are concerned with the presentation and discussion of data. Tables were prepared to show frequencies and percentages by categories. It was found that combining the counts for the two groups and expressing them as percentages helped to clarify the extent to which certain practices were being employed in schools generally.

Chapter IV discusses the data regarding school conditions related to supervision of instruction, principals' views regarding supervision, and incidence of the more standard supervisory practices. Chapter V discusses data relating to teacher perception of the general supervisory style of principals.

#### I. CONDITIONS RELATING TO SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

##### Conditions Relating to the Principal

Principals' Experience. Comparison of the two categories in terms of principals' experience, as shown in Table II, indicates that principals in category B have had slightly less total experience than principals in category A. The difference becomes more striking, though







TABLE II

COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR TWO CATEGORIES OF SCHOOLS  
FOR CHARACTERISTICS RELATED TO SUPERVISION

	MEAN		DIFFERENCE OF MEANS	
	Categ. A	Categ. B	t*	F**
Total experience of principal (yrs.)	25.55	23.21	0.740	1.446
Total experience as principal (yrs.)	15.46	13.00	0.811	1.493
Experience as principal present school	9.50	5.64	1.657	1.613
Years of training of principal	4.68	4.50	0.968	1.198
Adm. and Sup'n. classes taken (no.)	2.00	2.36	0.702	0.975
Teachers supervised by principal (no.)	19.14	13.21	<u>2.732</u>	1.571
Total pupil enrolment	427.8	302.4	<u>2.399</u>	1.475
Principal's teaching load (hrs. per week)	11.14	17.29	<u>2.38</u>	0.787
Teacher's training (yrs.)	3.82	3.90	0.36	0.77
Teacher's experience present school (yrs.)	5.19	4.63	0.97	1.03
Teacher's experience elsewhere (yrs.)	7.61	10.06	<u>2.48</u>	0.729

\* With 394 degrees of freedom a  $t$  of 1.96 is significant at the .05 level on a two-tailed test. A  $t$  of 2.58 is significant at the .01 level. Values which are significant at the .05 level or better are underlined.

\*\* None of the F ratios was significant at the .05 level.



still not significant, when one notes that principals in category B have held their present position as principal for an average of 5.64 years while principals in category A have held theirs for an average of 9.50 years.

Professional Training of Principals. Both categories indicate that principals have an average of between four and five years of training beyond grade XII. Again, category A is not significantly higher than category B.

It is interesting to note that category-B principals report having taken an average of 2.36 classes related to supervision of instruction compared to 2.00 classes for category-A principals.

Principals' Supervisory Load. Still referring to Table II, it is noted that significant differences in school size are indicated both in terms of numbers of teachers supervised and total pupil enrolment. Category-A schools report an average of 19.14 teachers with 427.8 pupils enrolled compared to category-B schools with 13.21 teachers and 302.4 pupils enrolled. These differences are significant at better than the .02 level.

The pupil-teacher ratio of 22.9 for category-B is only slightly above that for category-A schools which stands at 22.3 pupils per teacher.

Principals' Teaching Load. Principals in category B





report significantly heavier teaching loads than principals in category A. This is not surprising since the supervisory load for category B is smaller. However, considering 25 school-hours per week with 17.29 hours devoted to teaching leaves category-B principals 7.71 hours per week to supervise an average of 13.21 teachers. This amounts to .583 hours of supervision and administration time per teacher per week. Category-A principals, with 11.14 teaching hours in a 25-hour week, have an average of 13.86 hours to supervise 19.14 teachers which amounts to .723 hours of supervision and administration time per teacher per week.

Other variables such as additional supervisory staff, if considered, would tend to work to the advantage of principals in the larger schools. Clearly this leaves category-B principals at a disadvantage in terms of supervision time.

### Conditions Relating to Teachers

The last three entries in table II, page 50, indicate a number of factors relating to teachers in the two categories.

Teachers' Training. Teachers in both categories have approximately equal amounts of education. Category-B teachers, with an average of 3.90 years beyond grade XII, are slightly, though not significantly, higher than teachers





in category A who average 3.82 years of training.

Teachers' Experience and Rate of Turnover. Considering the number of years teachers have spent in their present schools gives an indication of the rate of teacher turnover. The difference between categories again is not significant although schools in category A with an average teacher tenure of 5.19 years appear to be able to retain teachers longer than schools in category B where the average tenure is 4.63 years.

The number of years teachers have taught elsewhere sheds further light upon the question of teacher turnover. Teachers in category B, with 10.06 years of experience elsewhere are significantly above teachers in category A who average only 7.61 years.

The fact that teachers in category B have significantly more experience elsewhere than teachers in category A but less in their present positions suggests that category B contains teachers who are older and more experienced than teachers in category A but change schools oftener.

Teachers' Sex and Marital Status. In an attempt to investigate more fully the problem of the significant difference between categories in terms of experience elsewhere, a frequency count of sex by marital status for the



two categories was carried out. The results, which appear in Table III, yield a chi-square of 7.69 which is not significant at the .05 level. Teachers' sex and marital status does not significantly distinguish the categories from one another.

### Principals' Perception of the Importance of the Supervisory Function

In answer to the question, "To what extent do you consider that a principal should be responsible for the supervision of instruction in his school?" 44 per cent of all principals in the sample considered supervision more important than other duties while 52.8 per cent considered supervision as being on a par with other administrative duties. Table IV shows further that, although differences between categories did not reveal a significant chi-square, principals in category B tended to emphasize the importance of supervision more than did principals in category A, with 57 per cent of category-B principals rating it as "more important" compared to 36 per cent of category A.

### Definition of Supervisory Responsibilities by School Boards

The extent to which school boards have defined their expectations for principals in the area of responsibility



TABLE III

## TEACHER DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND MARITAL STATUS\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Male, single	42	14.1	14	14.0	14.1
Male, married	153	51.4	55	55.0	52.3
Male, other	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.25
Female, single	38	12.8	9	9.0	11.8
Female, married	56	19.0	14	14.0	17.9
Female, other	6	2.0	8	8.0	3.5

\* Chi-square of 7.69 on this frequency distribution indicates no significant difference between the categories since chi-square of 11.07 is required for significance at the .05 level.





TABLE IV  
EXTENT TO WHICH PRINCIPALS FEEL THEY SHOULD BE  
RESPONSIBLE FOR SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
More important than other duties	8	36.4	8	57.1	44.4
On par with other admin. duties	14	63.6	5	35.7	52.8
A minor responsibility of principals	0	0.0	1	7.1	2.8
Not a responsibility of principals	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0

\* Chi-square of 3.7 for this distribution is not significant at the .05 level.



for supervision of instruction is indicated in Table V.

It is noted that only five boards in thirty-six had any written policy defining duties of principals with regard to the supervision of instruction. Eighteen boards had clarified expectations verbally through the superintendent or other official. The remaining thirteen principals indicated that they were not aware of the subject of supervision of instruction having been dealt with in any official way.

This lack of defined policy by over 80 per cent of school boards is interesting in view of Egnatoff's study which found that 93 per cent of school boards expected principals to visit classrooms and 90 per cent expected them to hold individual conferences with teachers.<sup>1</sup>

#### Principals' Perception of the Effectiveness of Certain Practices

Table VI summarizes principals' responses to the question, "What practices do you find effective in helping to keep yourself informed about how teachers are making out in their classrooms?" Since none of the chi-squares reach

---

<sup>1</sup> John G. Egnatoff, "The Principalship in Saskatchewan", (paper read at Leadership Course for Principals, University of Alberta, 1956) in Leadership Course for Principals, 1956 (mimeographed), pp. 99 - 109.



TABLE V  
EXTENT OF DEFINITION OF SUPERVISORY  
RESPONSIBILITIES BY SCHOOL BOARDS\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Clearly defined written policy	1	4.55	1	7.1	5.5
Generally defined, written policy	2	9.1	1	7.1	8.3
Expectations verbally clarified	11	50.0	7	50.0	50.0
Not dealt with officially	8	27.5	5	35.7	36.1

\* Chi-square of .1 for this distribution is not significant at the .05 level.





significance at the .05 level, comparison by categories was abbreviated in the table to show only frequencies.

Generally, Informal Talks with Teachers was considered most effective with 78 per cent of principals rating it as "effective" or "very effective". Formal Visits to Classrooms ranked next with 61 per cent, and Short Routine Visits ranked third with 47 per cent rating it as "quite effective" or "very effective". Hall Patrols and other indirect methods were not considered effective.

#### Principals' Perception of Hindrances to Effective Supervision

Heavy Teaching Load, and Heavy Administrative Load were cited as serious hindrances to effective supervision. Table VII shows that 47 per cent of principals identified both of these as serious hindrances. Clerical Duties, Teachers' Resentment of Supervision by Principals, Staff Turnover, and Lack of Professional Training in Supervision were not considered "serious" or even "considerable" hindrances by most principals. Since differences between categories were not significant, details by category were not included in the table.



TABLE VI

PERCEIVED EFFECTIVENESS OF PRACTICES FOR KEEPING  
INFORMED ON TEACHERS' CLASSROOM PROGRESS<sup>+</sup>

	Not		Somewhat		Quite		Very	
	f (A, B) *	%**	f (A, B)	%	f (A, B)	%	f (A, B)	%
Formal visits	4, 1	14.0	8, 1	25.0	6, 10	44.5	4, 2	16.6
Short, routine visits	3, 1	11.1	9, 6	41.8	7, 3	28.0	3, 4	19.4
Informal talks with teacher	1, 0	2.8	5, 2	19.4	7, 4	30.6	9, 8	47.3
Hall patrol	8, 4	33.4	12, 6	50.0	1, 2	8.4	1, 2	8.4
Indirect clues	6, 6	33.4	12, 6	50.0	4, 1	13.9	0, 1	2.8

\* Frequency count for category A is followed by frequency count for category B.

\*\* Percentage of count for categories combined.

+ In no case did chi-square reach levels indicating significant differences between categories, at the .05 level.



TABLE VII  
PERCEIVED HINDRANCES TO EFFECTIVE  
SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION<sup>†</sup>

	None		Somewhat		Cons'ble		Serious	
	f (A, B) *	%**	f (A, B)	%	f (A, B)	%	f (A, B)	%
Teaching load	4, 2	16.7	5, 2	19.5	5, 1	16.7	8, 9	47.2
Administrative load	2, 2	11.1	5, 2	19.5	6, 2	22.2	9, 8	47.2
Clerical duties	7, 4	30.6	4, 5	25.0	5, 1	16.7	6, 4	27.7
Teachers resent supervision	17, 8	69.5	4, 3	19.5	1, 3	11.1	0, 0	00.0
Teachers lack prof. qualif.	12, 9	58.5	9, 3	33.3	0, 1	2.8	1, 1	5.6
Turnover of teachers	5, 7	33.3	10, 3	36.1	3, 3	16.7	4, 1	13.9
Lack prof. trg. in supervision	9, 10	52.7	10, 3	36.1	2, 1	8.3	1, 0	2.8

\* Frequency count for category A is followed by frequency count for category B.

\*\* Percentage of count for both categories combined.

+ In no case did chi-square reach levels indicating significant differences between categories at the .05 level.





### Records of Formal Supervision

The extent to which principals maintain records of formal supervision is indicated in Table VIII. Of 36 principals, only 2 reported that they kept detailed records of supervision and 6, that they kept brief records. Records of special cases were reported kept by 16 principals. One-third of the 36 principals reported keeping no records of supervision whatever. No significant differences between categories were found.

### Summary

This section has dealt with conditions related to supervision of instruction and views held by principals regarding supervision. It was found that principals regard the supervision of instruction as being of equal or slightly greater importance than their other administrative duties, but they perceive themselves hindered in adequately carrying out this function by heavy teaching and administrative loads. School boards, for the most part, have not defined their expectations for principals with regard to supervision of instruction. Principals regard informal conversation with teachers as the most effective way to keep informed on how teachers are progressing in the classroom. Formal visits to classrooms, and short, routine visits in connection with



TABLE VIII  
EXTENT TO WHICH PRINCIPALS MAINTAIN  
RECORDS OF FORMAL SUPERVISION\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Detailed records	0	0.0	2	14.2	5.6
Brief records	3	13.6	3	21.4	16.7
Records in special cases	12	54.5	4	28.6	44.4
No records kept	7	31.4	5	35.5	33.3

\* Chi-square of 4.8 was not significant at the .05 level.



other administrative duties are also considered useful. Written records of formal supervisory contacts with teachers are kept only in exceptional cases.

Significant differences between categories of schools were found in the following areas:

1. Size of school, with schools in category A being significantly larger both in terms of teaching staff and pupil enrolment.

2. Principals' teaching load, with principals in category B having significantly heavier teaching loads.

Principals in category A were found to have a distinct advantage over principals in category B in terms of supervision time even when allowances were made for increased size of schools.

## II. STANDARD SUPERVISORY PRACTICES

The more commonly recognized supervisory practices-- principals' classroom visitation, demonstration lessons, and observation of other teachers in their classrooms-- are discussed in this section.

### Formal Classroom Visits by Principals

The literature makes a point of emphasizing that what





goes on in the classroom is the focal point or hub of the whole program of supervision of instruction.<sup>2</sup> The implication is that the supervisor ought to have first-hand knowledge of what goes on there. Neagley draws attention to a number of factors which contribute to making classroom visits more effective. Among them are the following: (a) The visit should be made as a result of a teacher invitation. (b) The visit should be pre-arranged. (c) The observer should be as unobtrusive as possible in the classroom. (d) The visit should be followed by a conference between teacher and supervisor.<sup>3</sup> This supervisory practice was investigated in order to determine the extent to which schools in the two categories measured up to these criteria.

Table IX records the incidence of principals' visits to classrooms for the particular purpose of observing the teacher at work with the class. The most striking point observed was that 68.6 per cent of teachers reported having

---

<sup>2</sup> Harold Spears, Improving the Supervision of Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, incorporated, 1953), p. 268.

<sup>3</sup> Ross L. Neagley and N. Dean Evans, Handbook for Effective Supervision of Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, incorporated, 1964), p. 127.



had no such visits over the past year. One visit for the year was reported by 12.9 per cent of teachers while 9.3 per cent reported two, 4.0 per cent reported three, and 5.1 per cent reported four or more visits. A chi-square of 1.01 indicated no significant differences between categories for this distribution.

A frequency count of principal visits by years of experience in the present school indicated that visits made were predominantly to non-tenure teachers.<sup>4</sup> Of teachers reporting four or more visits, 15 out of the 20 had one or two years of experience in the present school. Of those reporting three visits, 13 out of 16 were non-tenure. Of those reporting two visits 21 out of 37 were non-tenure, and of those reporting one visit 28 out of 51 were non-tenure teachers. On the whole, 62 per cent of the teachers who reported one or more visits by principals were non-tenure teachers. Considering all the teachers in the sample, only 11.9 per cent reported one or more visits to tenure teachers.

---

4

In Saskatchewan, a school board wishing to terminate its contract with a teacher who has served the board for a period in excess of two years must do so under the terms of the Teacher Tenure Act, 1953. During his first two years of service with a board a teacher is not protected by the Tenure Act and is commonly referred to as a "non-tenure teacher". One result of this legislation has been that the work of teachers is fairly carefully scrutinized during their first two years of service with a board.



TABLE IX  
INCIDENCE OF FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITS  
BY PRINCIPALS\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Four or more	16	5.4	4	4.0	5.1
Three	12	4.1	4	4.0	4.0
Two	27	9.1	10	10.0	9.3
One	36	12.2	15	15.0	12.9
None	205	69.2	67	67.0	68.6

\* Chi-square of 1.01 is not significant at the .05 level.





Evidently formal classroom visitation is not a common supervisory practice. Where it is employed it appears to be for the purpose of assessing the work of non-tenure teachers.

Teacher-requested Visits. Table X indicates that 14.1 per cent of teachers who reported visits requested them on one occasion. Visits on two or more occasions made at the teacher's request were reported by 5.5 per cent of teachers visited. Of those who reported having received visits by principals, 80.4 per cent had not requested them. Chi-square of 5.09 was not significant at the .05 level. Since visits by principals are made primarily to non-tenure teachers with the obvious purpose of evaluation for permanent tenure it is not surprising that few such visits were requested.

Pre-arranged Visits. Data recorded in Table XI show that most visits by principals are not pre-arranged. Of the teachers who reported having received visits, 73.4 per cent stated that visits had not been pre-arranged, 19.5 per cent stated that one visit had been pre-arranged, and 7.1 per cent stated that two or more visits had been pre-arranged. Again, there was no significant difference between categories with regard to pre-arrangement of classroom visits.



TABLE X  
INCIDENCE OF FORMAL PRINCIPAL VISITS BEING  
REQUESTED BY TEACHER\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%**
On four occasions or oftener	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0
On three occasions	2	.7	0	0.0	1.6
On two occasions	4	1.3	1	1.0	3.9
On one occasion	15	5.1	3	3.0	14.1
None	87	29.4	41	41.0	80.0
Not applicable (no visit)	188	63.5	55	55.0	----

\* Chi-square of 5.09 is not significant at the .05 level.

\*\* Calculated on the basis of 125 teachers who were visited on one or more occasions.



TABLE XI  
INCIDENCE OF FORMAL PRINCIPAL VISITS TO CLASSES  
BEING ARRANGED BEFOREHAND\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%**
On four occasions or oftener	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0
On three occasions	2	0.7	0	0.0	1.6
On two occasions	5	1.7	2	2.0	5.5
On one occasion	14	2.1	11	11.0	19.5
Visit(s) not prearranged	73	24.8	23	23.0	73.4
Not applicable (no visits)	202	68.2	64	64.0	----

\* Chi-square of 3.40 is not significant at the .05 level.

\*\* Calculated on the basis of 125 teachers who were visited on one or more occasions.





Participation by Principals in Class Activities. The part which principals took in classroom activities during formal classroom visits is presented in Table XII. It is noted that 71 per cent of teachers reporting visits said that principals played no part in class proceedings. An additional 18 per cent reported that the principal had confined his part to one or two polite remarks upon entering and leaving the classroom. Only 11 per cent of teachers visited reported that principals had participated in class discussions in any way.

A chi-square of 9.4 indicating significance has been discounted because it was largely due to a low expected count in one of the cells.

Average Length of Principals' Visits. Referring to Table XIII for the average length of principals' visits, it is seen that visits of less than ten minutes duration were reported by 46.5 per cent of teachers visited while 33.9 per cent reported visits of between ten and twenty minutes duration. Approximately one-fifth of visits reported were of more than twenty minutes duration.

Again, a significant chi-square of 8.6 is accounted for by a low expected count in one of the cells and is not considered to indicate a marked difference between categories.



TABLE XII  
PART TAKEN BY PRINCIPAL IN CLASS ACTIVITIES  
DURING FORMAL CLASSROOM VISIT\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%**
None, inconspicuous	64	21.6	27	27.0	71.0
Brief remarks upon entry and exit	22	7.4	1	1.0	18.0
Participated briefly in class discussion	7	2.4	3	3.0	8.6
Played prominent role in class discussion	00	0.0	3	3.0	2.3
Not applicable (no visit)	202	68.2	65	65.0	----

\* Chi-square of 9.4 significant beyond the .05 level.

\*\* Calculated on basis of 125 teachers who were visited on one or more occasions.



TABLE XIII  
AVERAGE LENGTH OF FORMAL CLASSROOM VISITS  
BY PRINCIPAL\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%**
Less than ten minutes	49	16.5	10	10.0	46.5
Ten to twenty minutes	25	8.5	18	18.0	33.9
Twenty to thirty minutes	17	5.7	7	7.0	19.2
Over thirty minutes	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.8
Not applicable (no visits)	204	68.9	65	65.0	----

\* Chi-square of 8.6 is significant beyond the .05 level.

\*\* Calculated on the basis of 125 teachers who were visited on one or more occasions.





Conferences Following Visits. Referring to Table XIV it is seen that 61.8 per cent of teachers reporting classroom visits stated that these visits were not followed by a conference with the principal. Conferences held on one occasion were reported by 19.5 per cent of teachers visited while conferences on two or more occasions were reported by 18.7 per cent of teachers visited. Differences between categories were not significant.

Summary. In concluding the discussion of formal classroom visitation it is noted that the two categories are not significantly distinguished from each other in any aspect of this practice. Just over two-thirds of teachers reported not having received any formal classroom visits from their principals. Of the remainder, approximately one-third reported receiving one visit, one-third reported two visits, and the remaining third reported three or more visits. Visits were of less than twenty minutes duration in about 80 per cent of cases in which visits were reported. Approximately 90 per cent of teachers reporting visits stated that principals played no active part in the activities of the class. Teachers in one-fifth of reported visits had requested them, and about one-quarter of the teachers who were visited had received previous notice of the visit. About one-third of classroom visits which were reported were followed by a conference between teacher and principal.



TABLE XIV  
INCIDENCE OF CONFERENCES WITH PRINCIPAL  
FOLLOWING FORMAL CLASSROOM VISIT\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%**
On four or more occasions	2	.7	1	1.0	2.3
On three occasions	4	1.3	0	0.0	3.1
On two occasions	13	4.4	4	4.0	13.3
On one occasion	21	7.1	4	4.0	19.5
No conferences	56	18.9	26	26.0	61.8
Not applicable (no visits)	200	67.6	65	65.0	----

\* Chi-square of 1.80 is not significant at the .05 level.

\*\* Calculated on the basis of 125 teachers who were visited on one or more occasions.



### Routine Administrative Visits to Classrooms

Principals have occasion from time to time to pay brief visits to classrooms for administrative reasons. Sometimes information is required for a report, a pupil must be interviewed, the air-conditioning checked and so on. It is suggested that when used with discretion this practice is useful in maintaining contact with teachers and pupils, and in giving the principal some idea of how teachers are functioning in the classrooms. This practice has also been known to be a source of frustration to teachers when it has occurred too frequently or under conditions which have suggested that the principal's motives were not authentic.

Table XV shows that 45.2 per cent of teachers reported receiving from two to five such visits per year, 12.4 per cent reported up to three per month, and 8.1 per cent as many as one or more per week. Visits of this type were reported as not having occurred at all by 34.4 per cent of teachers.

Although a chi-square of 6.5 indicates that differences between categories are not significant at the .05 level, it is worth noting that teachers in category B tended to experience extremes with regard to this practice in comparison with category A. That is, category-B teachers reported a higher percentage of these visits occurring weekly or oftener and also a higher percentage of "no visits" than did teachers in category A.







TABLE XV  
INCIDENCE OF SHORT, ROUTINE, AND INFORMAL  
PRINCIPAL VISITS TO CLASSROOMS\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
One or more per week	21	7.1	11	11.0	8.1
Two or three per month	40	13.5	9	9.0	12.4
Two to five per year	141	47.6	38	38.8	45.2
None	94	31.5	42	42.0	34.4

\* Chi-square of 6.5 is not significant at the .05 level.



### Observing Other Teachers in Their Classrooms

Observing experienced and resourceful teachers at work in their classrooms is recommended as an effective inservice device for improving the teacher's performance in the classroom. Spears says, "The observation of the good work of other teachers is a sound practice in teacher training that begins in the undergraduate school and continues throughout the professional career of the teacher".<sup>5</sup>

In referring to Table XVI it is noted that 90.4 per cent of teachers had paid no visits at all to other teachers' classrooms for the purpose of observing their work. One such visit over the past school year was reported by 4.3 per cent of teachers, and two or more such visits by 5.3 per cent. Several of the teachers pointed out that they were reporting the observation of "teacher internes" or "student teachers" which was not what the investigator had in mind when the question was framed.

Obviously this is a practice which is not being used extensively.

### Demonstration Lessons

The teaching of demonstration lessons is a practice

---

<sup>5</sup> Spears, op. cit., p. 273.



TABLE XVI  
INCIDENCE OF TEACHER VISITS TO OTHER TEACHERS'  
CLASSROOMS TO OBSERVE TEACHING\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Four or more times	5	1.7	2	2.0	1.8
Two or three times	10	3.4	4	4.0	3.5
Once	15	5.1	2	2.0	4.3
Not at all	266	88.1	92	92.0	90.4

\* Chi-square of 1.8 is not significant at the .05 level.





of long standing in the supervision of instruction. It has been criticized as being too artificial to be really effective. Hrynyk reported that this practice was not held in high regard by either principals or teachers.<sup>6</sup>

The data appearing in Table XVII confirm what might be suspected by indicating that this is a practice which is not being used to any extent since 91 per cent of teachers reported having observed no demonstration lessons during the year. The remaining nine per cent who reported observing one or more lessons may be an exaggerated figure due to certain teachers considering lessons taught by student teachers as demonstration lessons.

### Summary

In this section, the examination of the practices of classroom visitation by principals, visits by teachers to other classrooms, and observation of demonstration lessons has shown that very little is being done in this area. Short visits to classrooms in connection with other administrative duties appears to be the only practice in common use. Categories were not significantly distinguished from each other in any of the practices which were discussed in this section.

---

<sup>6</sup>

Nick L. Hrynyk, "Supervisory Needs: West Jasper Place Public Schools" (unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1963), p. 87.



TABLE XVII  
OBSERVATION OF DEMONSTRATION LESSONS TAUGHT  
BY PRINCIPAL OR VISITING TEACHERS\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Four or more times	15	5.1	3	3.0	4.5
Two or three times	8	2.7	4	4.0	3.0
Once	5	1.7	1	1.0	1.5
Not at all	268	90.5	92	92.0	91.0

\* Chi-square of 1.4 is not significant at the .05 level.



### III. PRACTICES DIRECTLY RELATED TO THE INSERVICE PROGRAM

There are a number of group practices which principals might employ in an effective inservice program. Of these, the use of staff meetings for discussion of relevant classroom problems, the appointment of staff committees to study and report on questions relating to teaching and curricula, and the encouragement of teachers to study privately or through enrolment in summer schools or seminars, were investigated and are reported in this section.

#### Use of Staff Meetings

Miklos, in a detailed study of staff meetings in Alberta schools found that approximately fifty per cent of teachers in his sample reported that staff meetings contributed directly to improvement in classroom instruction by making them aware of new teaching techniques, enabling them to exchange ideas with other teachers, and becoming aware of improved ways to maintain classroom discipline.<sup>7</sup> Findings of this present study reveal that schools characterized by improvement in classroom performance are

---

<sup>7</sup> Erwin Miklos, "A Survey of Staff Meetings in Alberta" (unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1960), p. 100.





significantly associated with schools in which staff meetings are perceived to emphasize the discussion of such topics as were cited in the study by Miklos.

Table XVIII records responses to the question, "In your staff meetings, what importance, in terms of time and emphasis, would you estimate is attached to the discussion of matters directly related to the improvement of teaching?" Chi-square of 16.1 indicates that differences between categories in this respect are significant at about the .001 level. Examination of the distributions shows a distinct tendency for category-A teachers to feel that their staff meetings emphasize the discussion of problems directly related to the improvement of instruction whereas category-B teachers tend to feel that this topic is considered only somewhat important or even unimportant at their staff meetings. Over sixty per cent of responses from category-A teachers fell into the first two scale divisions compared to less than forty per cent of category-B teachers.

#### Staff Study Committees

In the discussion of related literature with reference to the inservice program the point was made that involvement of teachers in small-group activity was effective as a means



TABLE XVIII

IMPORTANCE ATTACHED TO USING STAFF MEETINGS FOR DISCUSSION  
OF PROBLEMS RELATED TO IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Most important	58	19.6	15	15.0	18.4
Quite important	124	41.9	24	24.0	37.4
Somewhat important	82	27.7	41	41.0	31.1
Unimportant	32	10.8	20	20.0	13.1

\* Chi-square of 16.3 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



of promoting teacher growth. The data presented in Table XIX suggest that this is indeed so.

Comparison of the two categories for the incidence of staff committees appointed to study problems concerning teaching and curricula yielded a chi-square of 35.8. This suggests a high level of association between this practice and the criterion. Only 42.6 per cent of teachers in category A reported no such committees compared to 71 per cent in category B. On the other hand, 17.9 per cent of category-A teachers reported having appointed four or more such committees over the past year where not a single teacher in category-B schools reported this number of staff committees.

Examination of percentages for the combined categories reveals that this practice is put to fairly good general use with 50.2 per cent of teachers reporting that one or more study committees were appointed over the past year, and 38.2 per cent reporting two or more committees to study problems related to teaching or curricula.

#### Promotion of Teacher-participation in the Inservice Program

Principals have opportunities from time to time to encourage teachers to improve themselves professionally. This study investigated two of the practices which might be used.





TABLE XIX  
APPOINTMENT OF STAFF COMMITTEES TO STUDY  
PROBLEMS IN TEACHING AND CURRICULA\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Four or more	53	17.9	0	0.0	13.4
Two or three	83	28.0	15	15.0	24.8
One	32	10.8	14	14.0	11.6
None	126	42.6	71	71.0	49.8

\* Chi-square of 35.8 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



Table XX summarizes responses to the question, "Has your principal made statements which you felt were intended to encourage you, or other teachers, on your staff, to enroll in summer school, correspondence classes, S.T.F. summer institutes, or other forms of inservice education?" While 31.7 per cent of teachers reported having heard no such statements, 15.9 per cent reported one, 35.6 per cent reported two or three, and 16.9 per cent reported hearing four or more such statements. Thus principals generally are using this practice to encourage teachers to participate in the inservice program.

Chi-square of 2.9 indicated no significant differences between categories in this regard.

Table XXI summarizes responses to a related question, "Have you heard your principal make reference to professional literature in a way which would suggest that it would be worthwhile reading for teachers?" Teachers reported hearing two or more such statements in 64.7 per cent of replies. Chi-square of 9.8, significant beyond the .05 level, was accounted for by the fact that almost 70 per cent of category-A teachers reported hearing two or more such references compared to just over 50 per cent of category-B teachers. At the other end of the scale, 30 per cent of category B reported



TABLE XX  
INCIDENCE OF PRINCIPALS ENCOURAGING TEACHERS  
TO PARTICIPATE IN INSERVICE EDUCATION\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Four or more times	50	16.9	17	17.0	16.9
Two or three times	112	37.8	29	29.0	35.6
Once	44	14.9	19	19.0	15.9
Not at all	90	30.4	35	35.0	31.7

\* Chi-square of 2.9 is not significant at the .05 level.





TABLE XXI  
INCIDENCE OF PRINCIPALS' REFERENCE TO  
WORTHWHILE PROFESSIONAL LITERATURE\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Four or more times	79	26.7	16	16.0	24.0
Two or three times	124	41.9	37	37.0	40.7
Once	29	9.8	17	17.0	11.6
Not at all	63	21.3	30	30.0	23.5

\* Chi-square of 9.8 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .05 level of significance.



hearing no such statement throughout the year compared to 21 per cent of category-A teachers. In other words, principals in category A tend to draw teachers' attention to the literature oftener than do principals in category B.

### Summary

This section has dealt with several practices which principals might use in the inservice program of their schools. The study isolated three practices which distinguished significantly between the two categories of schools.

1. Staff meetings in category-A schools were perceived to be planned so as to stress the importance of discussing classroom problems. Staff meetings in category-B schools were perceived to neglect this function.

2. Principals in category-A schools tended to encourage teachers to read professional literature to a greater extent than did principals in category-B schools.

3. The number of staff committees which had been appointed to study problems related to teaching or curricula was significantly larger in category-A than in category-B schools.

All practices discussed in this section were found to be used on a fairly wide basis in schools generally.



#### IV. OTHER FORMS OF CONSULTATION

This section deals with forms of consultation of a more individual nature than those discussed in the previous section. Social contacts between principals and teachers with attendant discussion of classroom problems, casual meetings during the school day in various parts of the school, teacher-principal conferences in the principal's office, and principals personally assisting or advising teachers with particular classroom problems are practices which are discussed in this section.

##### Social Contact Between Principal and Teacher

In most school situations, and particularly in the smaller communities, there are opportunities for the principal and teachers to meet socially at sports, church, and other community functions, or even in each others' homes. Such occasions can provide the setting for casual discussion of a teacher's classroom problems. More often such contacts contribute to the establishment of a personal relationship which will facilitate consultation at a more appropriate time.

Table XXII indicates that only ten per cent of teachers did not meet socially with their principals during the school year. A difference between categories, significant beyond the .05 level (chi-square of 9.7), was found. This difference was





most apparent at the low end of the scale with 18 per cent of category-B teachers, compared to 7.4 per cent of category-A teachers, reporting no social contacts with the principal over the period of the school year.

#### Discussion of School Problems on Social Occasions.

Table XXIII shows that 38.4 per cent of teachers never discussed school problems with principals on social occasions. Considering that about 10 per cent of teachers did not meet principals socially, this still leaves about one-third of the teachers who, when they met with the principal on social occasions, refrained from indulging in "shop talk". Occasional discussion of school problems on such occasions was reported by 34.6 per cent of teachers while 27.1 per cent discussed classroom problems frequently or regularly. Chi-square of 6.5 is below the .05 level of significance. However, examination of the distribution suggests that category-B teachers tend more toward extremes than category-A teachers with more of them avoiding "shop talk" completely or indulging in it regularly.

#### Casual Principal-teacher Meetings in the School

principals and teachers meet casually in staff rooms and halls, in the library, and in classrooms when students have been dismissed. These occasions are sometimes useful



TABLE XXII  
INCIDENCE OF SOCIAL CONTACT BETWEEN  
PRINCIPAL AND TEACHERS \*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Weekly or oftener	30	10.1	8	8.0	9.6
Up to twice per month	79	26.7	21	21.0	25.2
Up to five times yearly	165	55.8	53	53.0	55.0
None	22	7.4	18	18.0	10.1

\* Chi-square of 9.7 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .05 level.



TABLE XXIII  
INCIDENCE OF DISCUSSION OF SCHOOL PROBLEMS  
WITH PRINCIPAL ON SOCIAL OCCASIONS\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Regularly	18	6.1	10	10.0	7.1
Frequently	64	21.6	15	15.0	20.0
Occasionally	108	36.5	29	29.0	34.6
Never	106	35.8	46	46.0	38.4

\* Chi-square of 6.5 is not significant at the .05 level.





for the purpose of individual consultation.

Table XXIV indicates that 45.2 per cent of teachers had discussed classroom matters on one or two such occasions during the year while 48.8 per cent had done so on three or more occasions. These figures indicate that this is a common practice. Chi-square of 5.9 indicates that categories are not significantly distinguished from each other by this practice.

#### Principal-teacher Conferences

When problems to be discussed are of a somewhat urgent or serious nature, consultation may take the form of conferences in the principal's office. Such conferences may be principal-initiated or teacher-initiated.

Tables XXV and XXVI indicate that 54.8 per cent of teachers reported one or more principal-initiated conferences while 90.2 per cent reported one or more teacher-initiated conferences.

Incidence of principal-initiated conferences revealed a significant difference at the .05 level with chi-square of 8.4. It appears that category-B principals tend toward extremes in this regard compared to category-A principals. Five or more principal-initiated conferences were reported by 15 per cent of category-B teachers compared to 9.8 per



TABLE XXIV  
INCIDENCE OF TEACHERS DISCUSSING CLASSROOM MATTERS WITH  
PRINCIPAL ON OCCASION OF CASUAL MEETINGS IN SCHOOL\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Five or more times	69	23.3	33	33.0	25.8
Three or four times	74	25.0	17	17.0	23.0
One or two times	137	46.3	42	42.0	45.2
Not at all	16	5.4	8	8.0	6.7

\* Chi-square of 5.9 is not significant at the .05 level.



TABLE XXV  
INCIDENCE OF PRINCIPAL-INITIATED CONFERENCES  
IN THE PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Five or more	29	9.8	15	15.0	11.1
Three or four	51	17.2	9	9.0	15.2
One or two	90	30.4	23	23.0	28.5
None	126	42.6	53	53.0	45.2

\* Chi-square of 8.4 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .05 level.





TABLE XXVI  
INCIDENCE OF TEACHER-INITIATED CONFERENCES  
IN PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Five or more	74	25.0	31	31.0	26.5
Three or four	81	27.4	25	25.0	26.8
One or two	111	37.5	35	35.0	36.9
None	30	10.1	9	9.0	9.8

\* Chi-square of 1.4 is not significant at the .05 level.



cent of category-A. On the other hand, 53 per cent of category-B teachers reported no principal-initiated conferences as against 42.6 per cent of category-A. Differences between categories are not significant for teacher-initiated conferences.

Again, this type of practice-- and especially the teacher-initiated conference-- seems to be in common use.

#### Practical Assistance with Classroom Problems

Occasionally teachers require individual practical assistance with particular duties such as preparing a test, planning a special project, outlining a unit of work, or selecting and using special teaching aids. The principal who has the inclination, the time, and the ability to engage in this form of consultation is in a position to contribute materially to the improvement of instruction. The findings with regard to this practice are shown in Table XXVII.

That this is a time-consuming practice, often requiring special skills, is reflected by the fact that 52 per cent of teachers reported no instance of this practice. Although 61 per cent of category-B teachers reported no instance of receiving this type of help compared to 49 per cent in category A, the chi-square of 4.9 indicates that differences between the categories for this distribution are not significant at the .05 level.



TABLE XXVII  
INCIDENCE OF PRINCIPALS GIVING PRACTICAL ASSISTANCE TO  
TEACHERS REGARDING CLASSROOM WORK\*

	Category A		Category B		Combined
	f	%	f	%	%
Four or more times	29	9.8	9	9.0	9.6
Two or three times	87	29.4	23	23.0	27.8
Once	35	11.8	7	7.0	10.6
Not at all	145	49.0	61	61.0	52.0

\* Chi-square of 4.9 is not significant at the .05 level.





Summary

In this section dealing with individual consultation it was found that practices in common use are:

1. Discussion of classroom problems during casual meetings in the school.

2. Teacher-initiated conferences with the principal in his office.

Significant differences between categories were found in one instance, that of principal-initiated conferences, where, by comparison, category-B principals tended to either neglect them entirely or overdo them.



## CHAPTER V

### ANALYSIS OF DATA (PART II)

In the discussion of the literature the point was made that teachers will improve their performance in the classroom if (a) they learn more about their subject and how it can be presented more effectively, and (b) they become more highly motivated to use the abilities they already have. The latter part of Chapter IV dealt with ways in which principals are attempting to promote improved classroom performance through teacher learning. Chapter V deals with ways in which principals are promoting improvement in classroom performance through teacher motivation.

This chapter presents data dealing with teachers' perceptions of (a) the principal as an example of industry and efficiency, (b) the principal as showing consideration and understanding, (c) the principal as representing the teacher group, and (d) the principal as an agent of change.

#### I. THE PRINCIPAL AS AN EXAMPLE OF INDUSTRY AND EFFICIENCY

It is suggested that teachers are motivated to improve their performance in the classroom if they feel that the principal is looking after his own job properly and if they feel that he does not expect them to do what he is not



prepared to do himself. Moreover, it is suggested that this form of motivation is more effective than direct pressure on teachers to work harder. This section deals with four questions which were designed to test the above proposition.

The Principal as a Hard Worker. Teachers' responses to the question, "Do you think of your principal as a hard worker?" are presented in Table XXVIII. Chi-square of 51.0 indicated highly significant differences in the distributions of responses for the two categories. In category A, 70 per cent of teachers described their principal as "a very hard worker" compared to 34 per cent of category-B teachers. The frequency with which teachers in category A reported that they thought of their principal as a very hard worker was significantly greater than in category B.

The Principal as Being Aware of What Goes on in Classrooms. Teachers were asked, "To what extent do you feel that your principal is aware of what goes on in your class?" Again a chi-square of 17.4, significant beyond the .001 level, was found. Reference to Table XXIX reveals that category-A teachers tended toward the top of the scale with 77 per cent of responses in the first two places compared with 57 per cent of category-B teachers. Category-A schools are significantly distinguished from category-B schools in that more of the teachers in category A perceive their principals to be well informed about what goes on in the classrooms.





TABLE XXVIII  
TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL AS  
A HARD WORKER\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Works very hard indeed	207	70.0	34	34.0
Works reasonably hard	79	26.7	47	47.0
Does not strain himself	8	2.7	17	17.0
Avoids work	2	0.7	2	2.0

\* Chi-square of 51.0 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



TABLE XXIX  
TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL AS BEING AWARE  
OF WHAT GOES ON IN CLASS\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Has very complete idea	75	25.3	19	19.0
Has fairly good idea	153	51.7	38	38.0
Has general idea	54	18.2	29	29.0
Has a very vague idea	14	4.7	14	14.0

\* Chi-square of 17.4 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



The Principal as One Consistently Well Prepared.

Teachers were asked to what extent they thought that the principal was prepared whenever he was expected to address a group. Table XXX, reveals that over 92 per cent of category-A teachers felt that their principal was prepared most of the time compared to 75 per cent of category-B teachers. Chi-square of 22.2 again indicates differences between the two distributions significant beyond the .001 level. The categories are distinguished from each other in that category-A teachers tend more frequently to feel that their principal is well prepared when he is expected to make a presentation.

The Principal as One Applying Pressure on Teachers to Work Harder. Teachers in the two categories were not significantly distinguished from one another in the extent to which they reported being conscious of pressure being applied upon them to work harder. Table XXXI indicates that approximately half the teachers in each of the categories were unconscious of pressure being applied by the principal. This suggests that the application of direct pressure on teachers to improve their performance has little effect in the final analysis on group output.





TABLE XXX

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL AS ONE WHO IS WELL  
PREPARED WHEN EXPECTED TO ADDRESS A GROUP \*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Most of the time	274	92.6	75	75.0
At least half the time	12	4.1	14	14.0
One-quarter of the time	6	2.0	6	6.0
Seldom	4	1.3	5	5.0

\* Chi-square of 22.2 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



TABLE XXXI  
TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL AS ONE WHO APPLIES  
PRESSURE TO GET TEACHERS TO WORK HARDER\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Very much so	18	6.1	8	8.0
To a considerable extent	48	16.2	13	13.0
To some extent	84	28.4	35	35.0
Unconscious of pressure	146	49.3	44	44.0

\* Chi-square of 2.5 is not significant at the .05 level.



Summary. This section, dealing with teachers' perceptions of the principal as an example of industry and efficiency, has produced evidence to indicate that there is a high level of association between this variable and the criterion.

Category-A teachers tended to think of their principal as (a) one who worked very hard, (b) one who was well aware of what was transpiring in the classrooms, and (c) one who was conscientious in his own preparations. Category-B teachers were significantly distinguished from category A in that their ratings of the principal in these areas were consistently lower.

The application of pressure by the principal in order to get teachers to work harder was not significantly associated with category.

## II. THE PRINCIPAL'S CONSIDERATION OF STAFF

A review of organization and motivation theory leads one to infer that improvement in classroom performance by teachers is directly related to the extent that principals show concern for teachers as individuals. This section deals with four questions which were designed to relate improvement in teachers' classroom performance with teacher-perception of





(a) the principal's interest in the teacher as an individual, (b) the principal's approachability with regard to the discussion of teachers' problems, (c) accomodation of teachers in timetable planning, and (d) teacher involvement in decision-making for the school.

Principals' Interest in Teachers as Individuals. The teacher was asked if he felt that his principal was interested in him as a person and was concerned about his welfare. Table XXXII reveals distinct differences in the distributions of responses for the categories. Category-A teachers' responses tended toward the top of the scale with 80.1 per cent saying that their principal was "very much interested" or "interested to quite a degree". In category-B only 57 per cent of teachers felt this way. Chi-square of 22.2 indicates differences between the distributions significant beyond the .001 level. Category-A teachers tend to feel to a greater extent than category-B teachers that principals are concerned about them as individuals.

Principals' Approachability. Teachers who feel that their principal is interested in them as individuals should feel comparatively free to discuss their problems with him. Table XXXIII records the teacher response to the question of the extent to which they felt that they were able to



TABLE XXXII

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL AS BEING INTERESTED

IN TEACHER AS A PERSON AND CONCERNED

ABOUT HIS WELFARE\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Very much	108	36.5	22	22.0
To quite a degree	129	43.6	35	35.0
Somewhat	51	17.2	35	35.0
Not at all	8	2.7	8	8.0

\* Chi-square of 22.2 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



discuss problems freely with their principal. As expected, category-A responses tended toward the top of the scale to a greater extent than category-B with 63 per cent of category-A finding their principal "very approachable" compared to 48 per cent of category B. Chi-square of 9.7 indicates significance at about the .02 level. Category-A teachers tended to find their principals more approachable than category-B teachers in terms of the extent to which they felt they could discuss problems freely with them.

Principals' Consideration and the Timetable. Teachers were asked, "Do you feel that your principal makes an effort to arrange the timetable in such a way as to take full advantage of teachers' specialties and abilities?" Responses summarized in Table XXXIV indicate a 42 per cent count in category A under "he really goes out of his way", compared to 18 per cent in category B. Chi-square of 22.6, significant beyond the .001 level, indicates that category-A teachers feel, to a greater extent than category-B teachers that their principals make a real effort in planning the timetable to accomodate teachers' specialties and abilities.

Teachers' Share in Decisions Regarding the School.

Table XXXV records the response to the question of the extent to which teachers feel that they share in making decisions







TABLE XXXIII  
 EXTENT TO WHICH TEACHER FEELS FREE TO  
 DISCUSS PROBLEMS WITH PRINCIPAL\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Finds principal very approachable	186	62.9	48	48.0
Finds principal fairly approachable	81	27.4	32	32.0
Finds principal somewhat approachable	24	8.1	16	16.0
Finds principal unapproachable	5	1.7	4	4.0

\* Chi-square of 9.7 indicates differences between categories significant at about the .05 level.



TABLE XXXIV

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL AS MAKING AN EFFORT

TO ARRANGE TIMETABLE SO AS TO TAKE ADVANTAGE

OF TEACHERS' SPECIALTIES AND ABILITIES\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Really goes out of his way	125	42.2	18	18.0
Makes reasonable effort	132	44.6	55	55.0
Makes some effort	26	8.8	19	19.0
No evidence of effort	13	4.4	8	8.0

\* Chi-square of 22.6 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



about the school's operation. In category A, 33.6 per cent of teachers felt that they were "very much involved" in making school decisions as against 12 per cent in category B. On the other hand, 25 per cent of category-B teachers felt that they had "no real share" in decision making compared to 7.1 per cent in category A. A chi-square of 33.1 indicates significant differences between the distributions beyond the .001 level. Teachers in category A tend to feel that they have a fair-to-large share in decision making for the school while teachers in category B tend to feel that they have a minor or insignificant share.

Summary. This section has presented evidence linking improvement in the classroom performance of teachers with the principal's ability to establish warm and considerate human relations with his staff.

Teachers in category A were significantly distinguished from those in category B in that (a) they tended to a greater extent to feel that their principal was interested in them as individuals and was concerned about their welfare, (b) they tended to feel more free to discuss their problems with him, (c) they felt that their principal made greater efforts to accomodate teachers' specialties in the planning of the timetable, and (d) they felt that their principal tended to consult them to a greater extent when decisions involving teachers and their work were to be made.





TABLE XXXV

TEACHERS FEEL THAT THEY HAVE A SHARE IN MAKING

DECISIONS REGARDING OPERATION OF SCHOOL\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Very much so	99	33.6	12	12.0
To a fair extent	112	37.9	41	41.0
A minor share	63	21.4	22	22.0
No real share	21	7.1	25	25.0

\* Chi-square of 33.1 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



## III. THE PRINCIPAL AND REPRESENTATION OF STAFF

The group tends to recognize and value the leadership of an individual who is able to represent effectively the needs and interests of the group with others and especially those who are potential threats to the group's well-being. Becker has pointed out that the teacher looks to the principal as a buffer between herself and the complaining parent whom she sees as a threat to her classroom authority.<sup>1</sup> The principal is expected to contribute to the maintenance of the teacher's authority in the classroom.

The principal is valued as a supervisor if he is able to facilitate the work of the teacher by insuring that teaching aids and materials are of good quality and in plentiful supply. This section investigates these two aspects of supervision as they relate to the improvement of instruction.

Principal Support and Teachers' Classroom Authority.

Teachers were asked if they felt that the principal would support them in the presence of parents and students who raised complaints over the way in which their classes were

---

<sup>1</sup> Howard S. Becker, "The Teacher in the Authority System of the Public Schools," in Amitai Etzioni, Complex Organizations (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1961), pp. 243 - 251.



conducted. Table XXXVI shows that category-A teachers felt surer of this type of support than teachers in category B. In category A, 95 per cent of teachers stated that principals would invariably or usually support them while only 81 per cent of category B felt this confident of their principal's support. Chi-square of 19.4 indicates differences between the distributions significant beyond the .001 level. Compared to category B, teachers in category A tended to feel more confident of principal support when their classroom authority was threatened.

The Principal and the Supply of Teaching Aids and Materials. "Do you feel that your principal goes out of his way to see that teachers are supplied with aids and materials which help them to do a better job of teaching?" Table XXXVII pertains to this question. Again category A replies tended toward the top of the scale with 70.6 per cent of teachers selecting the first two scale divisions compared to 46 per cent of teachers in category B. On the low end of the scale 22 per cent of category-B teachers, compared to 5.7 per cent of category-A, felt that principals were making no effort whatever in this direction. Chi-square of 29.2 indicates differences between the two distributions significant beyond the .001 level. Principals in category-A schools are perceived to go to greater pains than principals in category B to see that teaching aids and materials are readily available.







TABLE XXXVI  
TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL'S SUPPORT OF TEACHER  
IN CONFLICT WITH PARENTS OR STUDENTS\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Would invariably support	180	60.8	53	53.0
Would usually support	101	34.1	28	28.0
Would sometimes support	10	3.4	15	15.0
Would seldom support	5	1.7	4	4.0

\* Chi-square of 19.4 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



TABLE XXXVII  
TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL AS ONE WHO GOES OUT  
OF HIS WAY TO SEE THAT TEACHERS ARE SUPPLIED  
WITH TEACHING AIDS AND MATERIALS\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Very much so	83	28.0	17	17.0
Considerably	126	42.6	29	29.0
Somewhat	70	23.6	32	32.0
Not at all	17	5.7	22	22.0

\* Chi-square of 29.2 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



Summary. This section has reported findings which strongly associate improvement in teachers' classroom performance with a principal who is perceived as representing the teacher group by (a) supporting the teacher in the presence of those who would challenge his classroom authority, and (b) extending himself in order to insure a ready and adequate supply of aids and materials needed to facilitate the teacher's work.

#### IV. THE PRINCIPAL AS A CHANGE AGENT

Improvement of teachers' classroom performance implies change. One would therefore associate teacher growth with an administration that (a) looks with favor upon new developments in curricula and teaching methods, and (b) encourages teachers to experiment with new ideas in the classroom. The two questions with which this section deals were designed to test the validity of this proposition.

##### The Principal's Attitude Toward Curriculum Change.

Teachers were asked to identify the statement which they felt expressed most accurately their principal's view toward curriculum change. Table XXXVIII shows that 47 per cent of category-A teachers felt that their principal considered it "important to keep up with developments in curricula".





By comparison, only 25 per cent of category-B teachers felt that this represented their principal's view. Chi-square of 42 denotes highly significant differences between the two distributions of responses. Category-A schools tend to differ from category-B schools in that principals in category A are perceived to take a more aggressive position toward curriculum change.

The Principal's Attitude Toward Innovation in the Classroom. Teachers were asked to indicate what attitude their principal took toward teachers who were interested in trying out new ideas in their classrooms. The distribution of responses shown in Table XXXIX reveals distinct differences between categories with chi-square of 59.6. Over 90 per cent of category-A teachers felt that their principals encouraged them strongly or to some degree at least whereas only 55 per cent of category-B teachers felt this way. Category-B teachers tended to feel that their principals were neutral with respect to innovation in the classroom. Category-A principals were perceived generally to give strong encouragement to innovation in the classroom whereas principals in category B were perceived as tending toward a neutral position with regard to innovation.



TABLE XXXVIII  
TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL'S ATTITUDE  
TOWARD CURRICULUM CHANGE\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
It is important to keep up with developments	139	47.0	25	25.0
Ready to co-operate in trying out new courses	145	49.0	52	52.0
Willing to go along if expected to do so	12	4.0	19	19.0
Old courses are just fine	0	0.0	4	4.0

\* Chi-square of 42.0 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.



TABLE XXXIX

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPAL'S ATTITUDE TOWARD

TEACHERS WHO ARE INTERESTED IN TRYING OUT

NEW IDEAS IN THE CLASSROOM\*

	CATEGORY A		CATEGORY B	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Encourages strongly	140	47.3	20	20.0
Encourages somewhat	124	41.9	35	35.0
Is neutral	28	9.5	40	40.0
Does not approve	4	1.3	5	5.0

\* Chi-square of 59.6 indicates differences between categories significant beyond the .001 level.





Summary. Findings presented in this section suggest that improvement in the classroom performance of teachers is strongly associated with schools in which principals are perceived to be (a) aggressive in keeping up with developments in curricula and teaching methods, and (b) active in their support of teachers who are interested in innovation in the classroom.



## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This concluding chapter presents a summary of the problem, procedure, and findings of the study. Conclusions which have been reached, and implications which are seen for the supervisory function and for further research constitute the final sections.

#### I. SUMMARY

##### The Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine differences in the supervisory practices of principals in high schools judged as superior and inferior according to the overall effectiveness of the program of supervision of instruction.

Schools categorized as superior and inferior according to perceived success in the promotion of improvement in teaching effectiveness were compared for the purpose of determining:

1. the extent to which certain variables, indirectly related to supervision of instruction, distinguished the two categories of schools.

2. the extent to which certain supervisory practices



were employed by schools generally.

3. the extent to which the views of principals differed regarding certain aspects of the supervision of instruction.

4. the extent to which the two categories of schools differed in terms of supervisory practices employed by principals.

5. the extent to which the two categories of schools differed in terms of the general supervisory style of principals as perceived by teachers.

#### Procedure

Provincially appointed superintendents of high schools in Saskatchewan were asked to evaluate intermediate-sized high schools in their respective zones on the basis of the following criterion: How successful does this school appear to be in promoting improvement in the teaching effectiveness of its staff? On the basis of this criterion each of the six superintendents identified four schools which they ranked high and four schools which they ranked low. This provided twenty-four schools perceived to be superior and twenty-four schools perceived to be inferior in promoting improvement in the teaching effectiveness of staff. Teachers in the two categories were asked to complete questionnaires





describing the extent to which certain supervisory practices had been employed with them over the past school year. Principals responded to a separate form. A rate of return of 92 per cent from category A, the superior category, combined with 59 per cent from category B, the inferior category, yielded an overall rate of return of 81 per cent.

Appropriate tests of the significance of differences between categories were applied. Null hypotheses were rejected at the .05 level of significance. For numerical data the t test for the difference between means was applied. For multiple-choice items, chi-square was calculated on contingency tables comparing observed and expected frequencies of choices for each alternate.

### Findings

Conditions Indirectly Related to Supervision of Instruction. Significant differences between the two categories of schools in conditions indirectly related to supervision of instruction were found as follows:

1. Schools in the superior category tended to be significantly larger both in terms of pupil enrolment and staff. Category-A schools with an average enrolment of 427.8 pupils and 19.14 teachers had approximately the same pupil-teacher ratio as category-B schools with 302.4 pupils



and 13.21 teachers.

2. Principals' teaching load in category-B schools was significantly heavier than in category-A schools. When adjustments were made for reduced supervisory load, due to the smaller size of category-B schools, it was found that principals in category B were still at a disadvantage with .583 hours of supervision time per teacher per week compared to .723 hours for principals in category A.

It was found that school boards for the most part have not formally defined the expectations which they hold for principals with regard to supervision of instruction. Over 80 per cent of principals indicated that they were not aware of any official policy statement regarding the supervisory duties of principals.

#### Principals' Views Regarding Supervision of Instruction.

It was found that principals generally regard the supervision of instruction as being of equal or slightly greater importance than their other administrative duties, but they perceive themselves hindered in adequately discharging this function by heavy teaching and administrative loads.

Principals reported having taken an average of 2.14 professional classes related to Administration or Supervision, yet over 90 per cent indicated that they did not perceive



themselves as being appreciably handicapped due to insufficient professional preparation for the job of supervision of instruction.

Informal conversation with teachers is regarded as the most effective way to keep informed on how teachers are progressing in their classrooms. Formal visits to classrooms and short visits in connection with other administrative routines are also considered useful.

Records of formal contacts with teachers in a supervisory capacity were reported to be kept only in exceptional cases.

Categories were not significantly distinguished from each other in terms of principals' views regarding supervision.

Standard Supervisory Practices. Formal classroom visitation, the practice regarded in much of the literature as basic to any respectable program of supervision was found to be conspicuously neglected. Just over two-thirds of the teachers in the sample reported not having received any formal classroom visits from their principals over the period of the school year. Of the remainder, approximately one-third received one visit, one-third received two visits, and one-third received three or more visits. Another point







worth noting in this regard is that of teachers visited, 62 per cent were in their first or second year of employment with their present board and hence on interim staff. In view of this it may be reasonably concluded that the main objective of most classroom visits was to evaluate rather than to assist teachers in improving their classroom performance.

Length of visits tended to be from ten to twenty minutes. Principals generally played no active part in classroom discussions. Of teachers visited, one-fifth had requested the visits, about one-quarter had received previous notice of the visits, and about one-third of the visits were followed by conferences in which the teacher's performance was discussed.

The less formal, short classroom visits made by principals in connection with other administrative routines were much more common. Approximately two-thirds of teachers reported having had one or more such visits during the year.

Over ninety per cent of teachers reported that they had not seen demonstration lessons taught and had paid no visits to the classrooms of other teachers for purposes of observing their methods.

No significant differences between categories were



noted with regard to any of these practices.

Group Practices Related to the Inservice Program. It was found that group practices in the inservice program tended to be used much more extensively than the individual practices. Teachers were asked to indicate the degree of importance they felt was attached to the discussion in their staff meetings of topics directly related to the improvement of teaching. Category-A teachers tended to feel that such topics were emphasized while category-B teachers tended to feel that inclusion of these topics at staff meetings was considered only somewhat important or even unimportant. Differences between categories with regard to this question were significant beyond the .001 level.

Comparison of categories with regard to incidence of the appointment of staff committees to study problems related to teaching and curricula also revealed differences significant beyond the .001 level. Approximately 60 per cent of category-A teachers, compared to 30 per cent of category-B teachers reported the appointment of one or more such committees over the past year. That this practice is being put to fairly wide use was revealed by the fact that about half the teachers reported the appointment of one or more study committees.



Approximately sixty per cent of teachers reported having heard principals make remarks which were intended to encourage teacher participation in inservice activities such as summer schools, institutes, and correspondence courses. About three-quarter of the teachers reported hearing principals make statements drawing teacher's attention to worthwhile professional literature. This latter device was significantly associated with category of schools in that principals in category A tended oftener to draw teachers' attention to the literature.

Other Forms of Consultation. There was significantly more social contact between principals and teachers in category A than in category B. For teachers generally, it was found that over sixty per cent sometimes discussed classroom matters with their principals on social occasions.

Casual meetings about the school provide opportunities for the discussion of classroom problems between principals and teachers. The fact that over ninety per cent of teachers reported having used this device on one or more occasions over the past year indicates that this is a common form of contact between principal and teacher.

When problems of a more serious nature are to be discussed consultation may take the form of a conference







in the principal's office. Such conferences may be teacher-initiated or principal-initiated. One or more principal-initiated conferences were reported by about 55 per cent of teachers while teacher-initiated conferences were reported by over 90 per cent. Principal-initiated conferences revealed a significant difference between categories in that, by comparison, category-B principals tended to neglect them entirely or use them excessively.

Teachers were asked how frequently they had received individual practical assistance from their principal in connection with such duties as preparing tests, planning special projects, and outlining units of work. In spite of the fact that this is a time-consuming form of consultation often requiring specialized skills, it was found that approximately half the teachers reported receiving such help on one or more occasions during the year. Differences between categories did not reach the .05 level of significance with regard to this practice.

Teacher Perception of the General Supervisory Style of Principals. In comparing the two categories of schools the most startling and most significant differences occurred in the area of the general supervisory style of principals as perceived by teachers. In the discussion of the literature



relating to the role of the supervisor as a motivator it was inferred that improvement in teachers' classroom performance would be directly related to teacher perception of the principal as (a) a person showing consideration and understanding, (b) an example of industry and efficiency, (c) a leader adequately representing the group's needs and interests, and (d) an agent of change. The findings tended to bear this out.

Differences between categories of schools, significant beyond the .001 level were found in the following areas:

1. Teachers in category A tended to think of their principal as a "very hard worker" while teachers in category B tended to be rather more conservative in their description of the principal as a man of industry.
2. Teachers in category A tended more frequently to think of their principal as keenly aware of what was going on in the school as a whole.
3. Teachers in category A tended more frequently to think of their principal as consistently well prepared whenever he was expected to make some presentation.
4. Teachers in category A tended more frequently to think of their principal as "very much interested" in teachers as individuals.



5. Teachers in category A tended to find their principal more approachable in terms of the extent to which they felt they could discuss problems freely with him.

6. Teachers in category A tended to feel to a greater extent than teachers in category B that their principal made a real effort in planning the timetable so as to accommodate teachers' specialties and abilities.

7. Teachers in category A tended to feel that they had a fair-to-large share in decision making for the school while teachers in category B tended to feel that they had a minor or insignificant share.

8. Teachers in category A tended to feel more confident of principal support when their classroom authority was threatened by students or parents.

9. Teachers in category A tended to perceive their principal as going to considerable lengths to see that teaching aids and materials were in adequate supply and of good quality whereas teachers in category B tended to perceive their principal as extending himself only somewhat, if at all, in this direction.

10. Teachers in category A tended to think of their principal as aggressive with regard to curriculum study and development while teachers in category B tended to think of their principal as passive in this regard.







11. Teachers in category A felt that their principal encouraged them strongly, or to some degree at least, if they were interested in trying out new ideas in the classroom whereas category-B principals tended to be thought of as neutral with respect to innovation in the classroom.

## II. CONCLUSIONS

At the outset of this report supervision of instruction was defined as representing the total influence which the principal exerts upon his school for a good instructional program.<sup>1</sup> In reviewing the findings of this study one is led to conclude that where principals in the high schools of Saskatchewan are achieving this function, it is through group practices and informal techniques incidental to other administrative functions. The more formalized, individual techniques which are recommended in the literature are largely neglected.

Practices such as teacher visits to the classrooms of experienced teachers, demonstration lessons, and principal visitation of classrooms were not widely used even in schools rated as superior. It was therefore impossible to establish an association between these practices and the criterion of

---

<sup>1</sup> See p. 14 of this report.



improvement in instruction. It would be a mistake to conclude from this that these practices are ineffective. They are simply not being employed.

A number of reasons might be advanced to explain why such individual practices-- highly recommended from a theoretical standpoint-- have not been applied to any extent. The most obvious suggestion is that these are time-consuming and costly practices and school boards by and large have so far not seen fit to provide for inservice education of teachers to this extent. It is probably correct to say that school boards as well as superintendents and principals generally are not yet fully convinced that an inservice program aimed at improving the quality of classroom instruction is really a school responsibility. In contrast, other enterprises, obviously regulated by the profit motive, do not hesitate to allocate sizable portions of their budgets to the inservice training of personnel.

The failure of school boards to express in a formal policy statement their expectations for principals in the area of instructional supervision has probably contributed in a two-fold way to this weakness in the supervisory program. On the one hand, adequate supervisory time has not been provided, and on the other, principals have been hesitant



about embarking on a major program of instructional improvement without official sanction. If they have done anything it has been limited to minor group efforts which make demands mainly on the out-of-school time of staff.

Group practices such as the appointing of staff committees to study problems related to the classroom and curriculum, and the use of staff meetings for the discussion of classroom problems are being used fairly widely and are significantly associated with the superior category of schools. Group practices such as these may be contributing to the improvement of instruction in two ways-- firstly, by helping teachers to solve their immediate classroom problems, and secondly, by contributing to the general morale of the staff.

The area of supervisory practice which was most strongly associated with the criterion of improvement in teachers' classroom performance was that of the general supervisory style of the principals as perceived by teachers.

A school which was judged to be superior in the promotion of instructional improvement tended to be under the leadership of a principal who was perceived by his teachers to be a hard worker, dedicated to the cause of education. He was seen as doing what he could to help teachers to solve their problems. He was a sympathetic listener. He supported them when their







classroom authority was threatened. He planned school timetables carefully and tried to insure that required materials were at hand when needed. He was progressive in his outlook and actively encouraged teachers to try out their ideas in the classroom. He encouraged his staff to improve their professional qualifications. He was prepared to consult with his staff when decisions involving them and their work were to be made.

In the discussion of the literature it was pointed out that teachers will improve their performance in the classroom if they learn more about their subject and how it can be presented more effectively, and if they become more highly motivated to use the abilities they already have.<sup>2</sup> Evidence produced by this study suggests strongly that where principals are succeeding in improving the classroom performance of teachers it is predominantly in the area of motivation--of removing frustration and providing the stimulus required to enable teachers to function at their professional best.

### III. IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study appear to have implications

---

<sup>2</sup>  
See p. 23 of this report.



for further research and for administrative practice. A number of these are identified in this concluding section.

Implications for Further Research. Individual supervisory practices such as classroom visitation by principals, demonstration teaching and observation by teachers of the classroom behavior of effective teachers are not widely used in spite of the fact that most administrators recognize these as potentially effective practices. There is a tendency to conclude that school situations generally do not lend themselves to these practices. Whatever the reason, it is evident that these practices have so far not been given a fair trial. There is a need for these practices to be tested in controlled situations in order to determine their effectiveness.

Elementary schools in Saskatchewan cities operate under conditions which differ considerably from those which obtain in the high schools from which the present sample was drawn. A replication of this study in a city elementary school system using a more fully refined instrument would yield valuable additional insight into supervisory practice.

Findings of this study suggest that the key to instructional improvement lies in the area of principal-teacher relations which has been variously identified by terms such as human relations, morale, school climate, and leadership.



Recent investigations in this area of administrative behavior have been producing valuable insights. It would appear that further inquiries in this area are warranted.

Implications for Administrative Practice. Group practices such as the use of staff meetings and staff committees in the inservice program are practical and effective even in situations which appear to be far from ideal. The high level of association between these practices and instructional improvement which was demonstrated in this investigation should encourage principals to employ them more widely.

Expectations which are held for principals in the area of instructional supervision need to be clarified. There is at present a considerable gap between the role of the principal as it is described in official documents issued by departments of education and the role of principal as it is described in the professional literature. A formal policy statement by a school board of what it expects of its principals in this area would not only clarify the problem in the mind of the principal, it would help to legitimate his supervisory activities in the minds of teachers and would help to convince board members that expectations for principals' functions can be reasonably held only if provision is made in terms of time







and budget for these functions to be carried out.

The findings of this study suggest that schools which are effectively promoting instructional improvement are strongly associated with principals who have been successful in establishing good human relations with their staffs. This should be a source of comfort to principals who have been concerned because they have not been able to make the round of visits, conferences and special activities which are generally considered as prerequisite to instructional improvement. It appears that the activity which proves most effective in promoting instructional improvement requires no extra time or budget although it does call for certain personal qualities which may require cultivation.

In spite of the fact that principals generally felt that lack of professional preparation was no hindrance to them in discharging their supervisory duties, it is nevertheless suggested that participation in an inservice program for principals, which would enable them to become familiar with recent developments in the theory of administrative behavior, would be reflected in instructional improvement.

Since a good interpersonal relationship with the teaching staff appears to relate so strongly to improvement in the classroom performance of teachers it is suggested that the



principal might well consider the advisability of budgeting his time in such a way as to allow himself more time to contemplate and cultivate the field of interpersonal relationships.



## BIBLIOGRAPHY





## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### A. BOOKS

Blau, Peter M. and W. Richard Scott. Formal Organizations. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962.

Castetter, William B. Administering the School Personnel Program. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1962.

Ferguson, George A. Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education. New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1959.

Harris, Ben M. Supervisory Behavior in Education. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1963.

McKean, Robert C. and H. H. Mills. The Supervisor. Washington: Center for Applied Research in Education, Incorporated, 1964.

Maslow, A. H. Motivation and Personality. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954.

Neagley, Ross L. and N. Dean Evans. Handbook for Effective Supervision of Instruction. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1964.

Selltiz, Claire, et al. Research Methods in Social Relations. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1963.

Spears, Harold. Curriculum planning Through In-service Programs. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1957.

\_\_\_\_\_. Improving the Supervision of Instruction. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1953.



## B. PAPERS, MONOGRAPHS,

## AND UNPUBLISHED WORKS

Andrews, John H. M. "The Principal - A Unique Supervisor", in A. W. Reeves, et al. The Canadian School Principal. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1962. pp. 59 - 68.

\_\_\_\_\_. "Who Shall Supervise?" Lecture delivered at Canadian Education Association Short Course, May, 1960. (mimeographed).

Argyris, Chris. "The Individual and the Organization: Some Problems of Mutual Adjustment", Administrative Science Quarterly, II(June, 1957), pp. 1 - 24.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Leadership for Improving Instruction, 1960 Yearbook of the ASCD. New York: National Education Association.

Becker, Howard S. "The Teacher in the Authority System of the Public School", in Amitai Etzioni. Complex Organizations. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1961. pp. 243 - 251.

Chase, Francis S. "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale", Administrator's Notebook, I(March, 1953).

Clark, James V. "Motivation in Work Groups: A Tentative View", in T. W. Costello and S. S. Zalkind (eds.) Psychology in Administration. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1963. pp. 106 - 122.

Egnatoff, John G. "The Principalship in Saskatchewan". Paper read at Leadership Course for School Principals, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1956. (mimeographed).

Enns, Frederick. "The Principal - Inspector or Consultant?" Leadership Course for Principals, 1960. Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, Edmonton. (mimeographed).





- \_\_\_\_\_. "Supervision: A Rationale", Canadian Administrator, II(April, 1963).
- Farrel, James Edward. "The Self-perceived Role of the Negro Principal in Improving Instructional Supervision in Tennessee". Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1963 (Dissertation Abstracts, 24:2333).
- Fenske, Melvin Robert. "Administrative Duties of Principals and Vice-principals in an Alberta School Division". Unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1963.
- Halpin, Andrew H. and Don B. Croft. The Organizational Climate of Schools. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963.
- Harris, Ben M. "Need for Research on Instructional Supervision", Educational Leadership XXI(November, 1963), 129 - 135.
- Hrynyk, Nick L. "Supervisory Needs: West Jasper Place Public Schools". Unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1963.
- Ingram, E. J. "Creating Readiness in the Staff", in L. W. Downey, et al. (eds.) Organization - A Means to Improved Instruction. Edmonton: The Policy Committee, Leadership Course for School Principals, 1962.
- Kahn, R. L. and D. Katz. "Leadership Practices in Relation to Productivity and Morale", in D. Cartwright and A. Zander (eds.) Group Dynamics. Evanston: Row, Peterson and Company, 1935. pp. 554 - 571.
- Mackay, D. A. "In-service Education - A Strategy for Staff Development", in F. Enns (ed.). The principal and Program Development. Edmonton: Leadership Course for School principals, 1964. pp. 65 - 74.





- Malmberg, Harvey. "The Principal as a Supervisor of Instruction in the Regional School Districts of New Brunswick". Unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1963.
- Miklos, Erwin. "School Climate and Program Development", The Canadian Administrator, IV(April, 1965), pp. 25 - 28.
- \_\_\_\_\_. "A Survey of Staff Meetings in Alberta Schools". Unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1960.
- Morley, Franklin. "The Roles of Supervisors and Administrators", in Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Individualizing Instruction, 1964 Yearbook of the ASCD. New York: National Education Association. pp. 125 - 158.
- Nova Scotia Teachers' Union. A Look at Supervisory Practices in Nova Scotia Schools. Study No. 4 by the Research and Curriculum Committees of the Nova Scotia Teachers' Union. Halifax: Nova Scotia Teachers' Union, 1963. (Pamphlet).
- Province of Saskatchewan. The School Act. Regina: Queen's Printer, 1954.
- \_\_\_\_\_. Teacher Tenure Act. Regina: Queen's Printer, 1953.
- Reeves, A. W. "The Role of the Principal", in A. W. Reeves, et al. (eds.). The Canadian School Principal. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited, 1962. pp. 33 - 41.
- Walls, Robert Bean. "An Evaluation of Supervision in the Calgary Public Elementary and Junior High Schools". Unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1960.



APPENDIX A

INITIAL LETTER TO PRINCIPALS



237 Athabasca Hall,  
University of Alberta,  
Edmonton, Alberta,  
April 21, 1965.

The purpose of this letter is to request your co-operation in connection with a research project which would involve you and your staff in a questionnaire requiring possibly fifteen minutes to complete.

The study is designed to discover what principals are doing to improve the teaching efficiency of their staff, and what types of problems they encounter in this area. I have been on the Saskatchewan education scene long enough to realize that principals, especially in the more outlying units, are suffering a great deal of frustration in all aspects of the staffing function. It would appear that a careful look at this problem is long overdue.

The questionnaire consists mainly of multiple choice items. Some of the items are of a confidential and sensitive nature since they request descriptions of the supervisory style used by the principal. I can assure you that all responses will be held in strictest confidence. No individual or school will be identified in any way. Upon receipt of the completed questionnaires, data will be punched into IBM cards, for statistical analysis and the questionnaires will then be destroyed.

I am suggesting that principals appoint an interested and dependable staff member to look after the details of distributing and collecting the questionnaires. This is partly to secure the teacher's confidence but mainly to relieve principals of an added burden.

I hope that you may be able to see your way clear to participate in this project. I am enclosing a stamped, addressed envelope together with a reply form which I trust you will complete and return to me at your early convenience.

Sincerely yours,

Erwin Ziolkowski.





APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTION SHEET

TO ACCOMPANY QUESTIONNAIRES



PRACTICES EMPLOYED BY HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS  
IN THE SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

Instructions for Administering Questionnaires.

1. This package contains one Principal's Questionnaire form. Please have the principal complete this. Ask him to seal the questionnaire in the envelope provided after he has answered it and return it to you.
2. Please have one of the Teachers' Questionnaires completed by each of the full time teachers on your staff who is spending two-thirds or more of his teaching time in the high school department. The Teachers' form should not be completed by the principal or vice-principal. Again, would you please supply each teacher with an envelope in which to enclose his completed form.
3. If any of the teachers express concern that their responses may compromise their position in some way, please assure them that every precaution will be taken to keep their responses confidential and secure. Individuals or schools will not be identified at any time. Data will be coded and punched into IBM cards for statistical analysis after which the original forms will be destroyed. Schools or individuals will not be identifiable from the card information.

If concern is expressed about the professional ethics involved in making confidential statements, please assure the teachers that the objective here is not to damage the profession or individuals, but rather to advance our understanding of the problems of supervision. I have on file a letter from Mr. G. D. Eamer in which he assures me of the moral support of the S.T.F. in this project.

Would you please suggest to the teachers that the questionnaires should be completed by the individual teacher without discussion or reference to anyone else's responses. I have also asked that the questionnaire not be discussed following its completion. I do feel that ethics is involved at this point.

4. If at all possible, try to have the completed questionnaires back in your possession within one week. Any longer delays usually result in forms being misplaced or lost. When all the replies are in, please enclose them in the large stamped envelope which is provided, secure it using staples, and return it to me.

Please extend my personal thanks to the principal and teachers for their co-operation. I wish to thank you most courteously for your interest and effort.

Erwin Ziolkowski.



## APPENDIX C

### QUESTIONNAIRES





## PRACTICES EMPLOYED BY HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

### IN THE SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

#### Teachers' Questionnaire

##### Introduction

- I. The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate practices which are employed by principals to promote improvement in the teaching which is carried on in Saskatchewan high schools.
- II. Please answer the following questions as frankly and accurately as possible. You are assured that replies will be held in strictest confidence. The identity of principals, teachers, or schools will not be revealed at any time. It is to be hoped that your responses to this questionnaire will not be discussed with other staff members.
- III. When you have completed all the items, please seal the questionnaire in the envelope which is provided and return it to the staff member who is responsible for this matter. He will return all the completed forms directly to the Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, Edmonton. Please accept my thanks for your co-operation in this project.



A. Background Information

How many years of teaching experience have you had?

\_\_\_\_\_ years in this school. (counting this year)

\_\_\_\_\_ years elsewhere.

How many years of training beyond Grade XII are you credited with for salary purposes?

\_\_\_\_\_ years.

What subjects are you teaching this year? (Please check appropriate subjects from the list below.)

\_\_\_\_\_ English.

\_\_\_\_\_ Social Studies.

\_\_\_\_\_ Sciences.

\_\_\_\_\_ Mathematics.

\_\_\_\_\_ Foreign languages.

\_\_\_\_\_ Shops.

\_\_\_\_\_ Home Economics.

\_\_\_\_\_ Art.

\_\_\_\_\_ Music.

\_\_\_\_\_ Physical Education.

\_\_\_\_\_ Commercial.

\_\_\_\_\_ Other. (Please state) \_\_\_\_\_

What is the average size of your classes? (Please check the response which most accurately describes your situation.)

\_\_\_\_\_ (1) Under 15.

\_\_\_\_\_ (2) 16 to 20.

\_\_\_\_\_ (3) 21 to 25.

\_\_\_\_\_ (4) 26 to 30.

\_\_\_\_\_ (5) 31 to 35.

\_\_\_\_\_ (6) 36 to 40.

\_\_\_\_\_ (7) Over 40.

What is your marital status? (Please check one.)

\_\_\_\_\_ (1) Single.

\_\_\_\_\_ (2) Married.

\_\_\_\_\_ (3) Other.



What is your sex?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Male.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Female.

B. In each of the following items please check the one response which most adequately describes your experience. Please consider only what has happened since school opened last fall.

Has your principal made short, routine, and informal visits to your classroom during school hours?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) One or more times a week.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Two or three times a month.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Two to five times since school opened.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) None.

Has your principal met with you socially? (visits in homes, sport events, school, or community social events.)

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Once a week or oftener.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Once or twice a month.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) One to five times since school opened.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Not since school opened.

On such social occasions have you discussed classroom matters with him?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Regularly.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) On about half the occasions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Once or twice.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Never.

Have you discussed classroom matters with your principal on the occasion of chance meetings in the school? (in the hall, staffroom, library, or in your classroom when the class is out.)

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Once a week or oftener.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Two or three times a month.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Several times since school opened.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Not since school opened.





Have you, at your principal's request, gone to the principal's office to discuss teaching matters with him?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Five or more times since school opened.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Three or four times.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Once or twice.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Not at all.

Have you, on your own initiative, gone to the principal's office to discuss teaching matters with him?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Five or more times since school opened.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Three or four times.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Once or twice.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Not at all.

In staff meetings, what importance, in terms of time and emphasis, would you estimate is attached to the discussion of matters directly related to the improvement of teaching? (discussing classroom problems raised by teachers, new methods and curricula.)

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Most important.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Quite important.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Somewhat important.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Unimportant.

Have you formally visited other teachers' classrooms in order to observe their teaching?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Four or more times.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Two or three times.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Once.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Not at all.

Have you observed demonstration lessons taught in your school by the principal or someone other than a regular member of your school staff?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Four or more times.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Two or three times.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Once.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Not at all.



How many instances do you recall when your principal assisted or advised you personally with regard to some classroom job such as preparing a test, planning a special project, outlining a unit of work, selecting and using special teaching aids?

- ☐ (1) Four or more instances.
- ☐ (2) Two or three instances.
- ☐ (3) Once.
- ☐ (4) None.

Has your principal made statements which you felt were intended to encourage you, or other teachers on your staff, to enroll in summer school, correspondence classes, S.T.F. summer institutes or other forms of inservice education?

- ☐ (1) Four or more times.
- ☐ (2) Two or three times.
- ☐ (3) Once.
- ☐ (4) No.

Have you heard your principal make reference to professional literature such as a particular article, book, or journal in a way that would suggest that it would be worthwhile reading for teachers?

- ☐ (1) Four or more times.
- ☐ (2) Two or three times.
- ☐ (3) Once.
- ☐ (4) No.

Have staff committees been appointed in your school to study problems related to teaching or curricula?

- ☐ (1) Four or more committees.
- ☐ (2) Two or three.
- ☐ (3) One.
- ☐ (4) None.

Are there other members on the staff of your school from whom you derive a great deal of encouragement or assistance in your teaching?

- ☐ Vice-principal.
- ☐ Department head or senior teacher in your subject area.



- ☐ Another teacher in your general subject area.
- ☐ A senior teacher not in your subject area.
- ☐ A teacher in another area about your equal in seniority.
- ☐ None.

Since school opened last fall, how many visits has your principal made to your classroom for the particular purpose of observing you at work with your class?  
(Please check one.)

- ☐ (1) Four or more.
- ☐ (2) Three.
- ☐ (3) Two.
- ☐ (4) One.
- ☐ (5) None.

Did you request any of the above visits?

- ☐ (1) Yes, on at least four of the occasions.
- ☐ (2) Yes, on three occasions.
- ☐ (3) Yes, on two occasions.
- ☐ (4) Yes, on one occasion.
- ☐ (5) No, I did not.
- ☐ (6) Question not applicable, no visit.

Did the principal arrange for the visit(s) beforehand?

- ☐ (1) Yes, four or more visits were arranged beforehand.
- ☐ (2) Yes, three visits were arranged beforehand.
- ☐ (3) Yes, two visits were arranged beforehand.
- ☐ (4) Yes, one visit was arranged beforehand.
- ☐ (5) No, the visit(s) were not prearranged.
- ☐ (6) Question not applicable, no visit.

What was the average length of the visit(s)?

- ☐ (1) Less than 10 minutes.
- ☐ (2) 10 to 20 minutes.
- ☐ (3) 20 to 30 minutes.
- ☐ (4) Over 30 minutes.
- ☐ (5) Not applicable, no visit.







With respect to the visit(s) in general, what part did the principal take in classroom activities?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) None, he tried to be as inconspicuous as possible throughout.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) He made one or two brief remarks (upon entering and/or leaving).
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) He participated briefly in some of the class discussions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) He played a prominent role in the activities of the class.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (5) Not applicable; no visit.

Were the visit(s) followed by a conference with the principal during which your work was discussed?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Yes, on four or more occasions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Yes, on three occasions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Yes, on two occasions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Yes, on one occasion.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (5) No, there were no conferences.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (6) Not applicable; no visit.

C. In this section you are asked to express your judgment of situations as you see them. Your impressions are the factors which are of concern. For each question check the one statement that most closely represents your impression.

Do you think of your principal as a hard worker?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Works very hard indeed.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Works reasonably hard.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Does not strain himself.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Avoids work.

Do you have the impression that your principal is well prepared whenever he is expected to address a group?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Most of the time.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) At least half the time.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) One-quarter to half the time.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Seldom.



To what extent do you find that you are able to discuss problems freely with your principal?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) I find him very approachable.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) I find him fairly approachable.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) I find him somewhat approachable.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) I find him unapproachable.

Do you feel that your principal applies pressure to get teachers to work harder?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Yes, very much so.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) To a considerable extent.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) To some extent.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) I am not conscious of any pressure being applied.

What attitude do you feel your principal takes toward teachers who are interested in trying out new ideas in the classroom?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Encourages them strongly.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Encourages them somewhat.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Is neutral.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Does not approve.

Do you feel that your principal would support you in the presence of parents or students who raise complaints about the way you conduct your classes?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Would invariably support.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Would usually support.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Would sometimes support.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Would seldom support.

Do you feel that your principal goes out of his way to see that teachers are supplied with aids and materials which help them to do a better job of teaching?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Very much so.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Considerably.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Somewhat.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Not at all.



Do you feel that teachers have a share in making decisions regarding the operation of the school?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Very much so.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) They share to a fair extent.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) They have a minor share.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) They have no real part in making decisions.

Which of the following statements expresses your principal's attitude toward curriculum change most accurately?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) It is very important for us to keep up with new developments.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) We are ready to co-operate in trying out new courses.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) We are willing to try them if it is really expected of us.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) The old courses are perfectly alright.

Do you feel that your principal makes an effort to arrange the timetable in such a way as to take full advantage of teachers' specialties and abilities?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) He really goes out of his way.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) He makes a reasonable effort.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) He makes some effort.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) The timetable shows little evidence of planning.

To what extent do you feel that your principal is aware of what goes on in your class?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) He has a very complete picture of the situation.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) He has a fairly good idea.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) He has a general idea.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) He knows very little about what goes on.

Do you feel that your principal is interested in you as a person and concerned about your welfare?

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Very much.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2) To quite a degree.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Somewhat.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (4) Not at all.







PRACTICES EMPLOYED BY HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS  
IN THE SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

Principal's Questionnaire

Introduction

- I. The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate practices which are employed by principals to promote improvement in the teaching which is carried on in the high schools of Saskatchewan. The particular purpose of this form is to identify conditions in the school which could have an effect on the amount and nature of supervision which is undertaken in the school.
- II. Please answer the following questions as completely and frankly as possible. You are assured that all replies, whether principal's or teachers' will be held in strictest confidence. The identity of individuals, schools, or localities will not be revealed at any time.
- III. When you have completed the questionnaire please seal it in the envelope which is provided and turn it over to the staff member you have asked to look after this matter. He will return all the questionnaires directly to the Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, Edmonton.



Counting the present school year, what is the total years of experience you have had as a teacher and principal?

\_\_\_\_\_ years.

Counting the present year, what is the total years of experience you have had as principal?

\_\_\_\_\_ years.

Including this year, how long have you been principal of this school?

\_\_\_\_\_ years.

How many years of training beyond Grade XII are you credited with for salary purposes? (Do not include fractional years)

\_\_\_\_\_ years.

How many professional classes have you taken which were directly related to administration or supervision?

\_\_\_\_\_ classes.

How many full time teachers are there under your direct supervision?

\_\_\_\_\_ teachers.

What grades are taught under your direct supervision?  
(Check the item which describes your situation most closely.)

\_\_\_\_\_ (1) 10 to 12.

\_\_\_\_\_ (2) 9 to 12.

\_\_\_\_\_ (3) 8 to 12.

\_\_\_\_\_ (4) 7 to 12.

\_\_\_\_\_ (5) 1 to 12.

\_\_\_\_\_ (6) Other. (Please specify.) \_\_\_\_\_

What was your total enrolment last month?

\_\_\_\_\_ pupils.



In how many rooms were pupils enrolled?

\_\_\_\_\_ rooms.

How many hours per week are you scheduled to teach?

\_\_\_\_\_ hours.

With what other employees of your Board do you share responsibility for supervision of instruction? (Check appropriate blanks.)

\_\_\_\_\_ None.

\_\_\_\_\_ Department heads.

\_\_\_\_\_ Helping teacher.

\_\_\_\_\_ Supervisor.

\_\_\_\_\_ Other. (Specify.) \_\_\_\_\_

To what extent has your Board defined principals' responsibilities in the area of supervision of instruction? (Check the response which most closely describes your situation.)

\_\_\_\_\_ (1) There is written policy clearly defining what is expected.

\_\_\_\_\_ (2) There is written policy which defines responsibilities in general terms.

\_\_\_\_\_ (3) There is no written policy, but the superintendent (or other official) has verbally clarified expectations in this area.

\_\_\_\_\_ (4) I am not aware that this matter has been dealt with in an official way.

To what extent do you consider that a principal should be responsible for the supervision of instruction in his school? (Check one.)

\_\_\_\_\_ (1) More important than most other administrative duties.

\_\_\_\_\_ (2) On a par with most other administrative duties.

\_\_\_\_\_ (3) A minor responsibility.

\_\_\_\_\_ (4) Should not be considered a responsibility of the principal.





Do you keep written records of formal classroom visits, interviews, and other formal exchanges with teachers? (Check one.)

- \_\_\_\_\_ (1) Yes, detailed.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ (2) Yes, brief.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ (3) Yes, only in special cases.  
 \_\_\_\_\_ (4) No.

What practices do you find effective in helping to keep yourself informed about how teachers are making out in the classroom? (Circle the number which most closely represents your view.)

1. Ineffective.                      2. Somewhat effective.  
 3. Quite effective.                4. Very effective.

1   2   3   4   visits to classrooms planned for the specific purpose of observing teaching activities.

1   2   3   4   Short visits to classrooms on routine administrative business.

1   2   3   4   Informal conversation with the teacher; classwork is discussed as the occasion presents itself.

1   2   3   4   Walking down hallway during classtime to note general tone of classes.

1   2   3   4   Indirect clues from students, teachers, parents, etc.

To what extent do you regard the following as hindrances in carrying out what you would consider to be an effective program of supervision of instruction in your school? (Circle the number which most closely represents your view.)

1. No hindrance.                      2. Somewhat of a hindrance.  
 3. Considerable hindrance.            4. Serious hindrance.

1   2   3   4   I have a heavy teaching load.

1   2   3   4   I have a heavy administrative load including interviews, discipline problems, phone calls, and other routine.



- 1 2 3 4 I am burdened with excessive clerical duties.
- 1 2 3 4 Teachers resent supervision of instruction by the principal.
- 1 2 3 4 Teachers do not have sufficient professional qualifications with the result that supervision has little effect on quality of teaching.
- 1 2 3 4 High rate of teacher turnover prevents continuity of the program of supervision.
- 1 2 3 4 I feel that my professional training has not equipped me sufficiently for the job of supervision of instruction.







**B29840**